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ABSTRACT

The structure, history, objectives, and delivery of vocational education in the Netherlands were characterized through a review of existing documents explaining/regulating the Dutch vocational system and input from representatives of government, business, and labor. Vocational education was discussed within the context of the Dutch political and administrative structure, population and labor force, economy, and educational system as a whole, and its development was traced from the integration of vocational education into secondary education in 1968. Initial training and the training of employees and employers in the Netherlands were detailed along with the legislative and financial framework of vocational education. Employment trends and the present/future position of various target groups and vocational education's present and likely future were outlined. The following were among the policy dilemmas identified: tension between substantial growth in participation in higher forms of education and the improvement of success rates; special needs of late developers and dropouts; need to determine the optimum blend of government control and independence; and conflicting demands for higher levels of vocational education and limits on public spending. (Contains 28 tables/figures. Appended are the following: a list of acronyms/abbreviations; names/addresses of 20 agencies/organizations and social partners; a 14-item bibliography; and glossary.) (MN)

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Vocational education and training in the Netherlands

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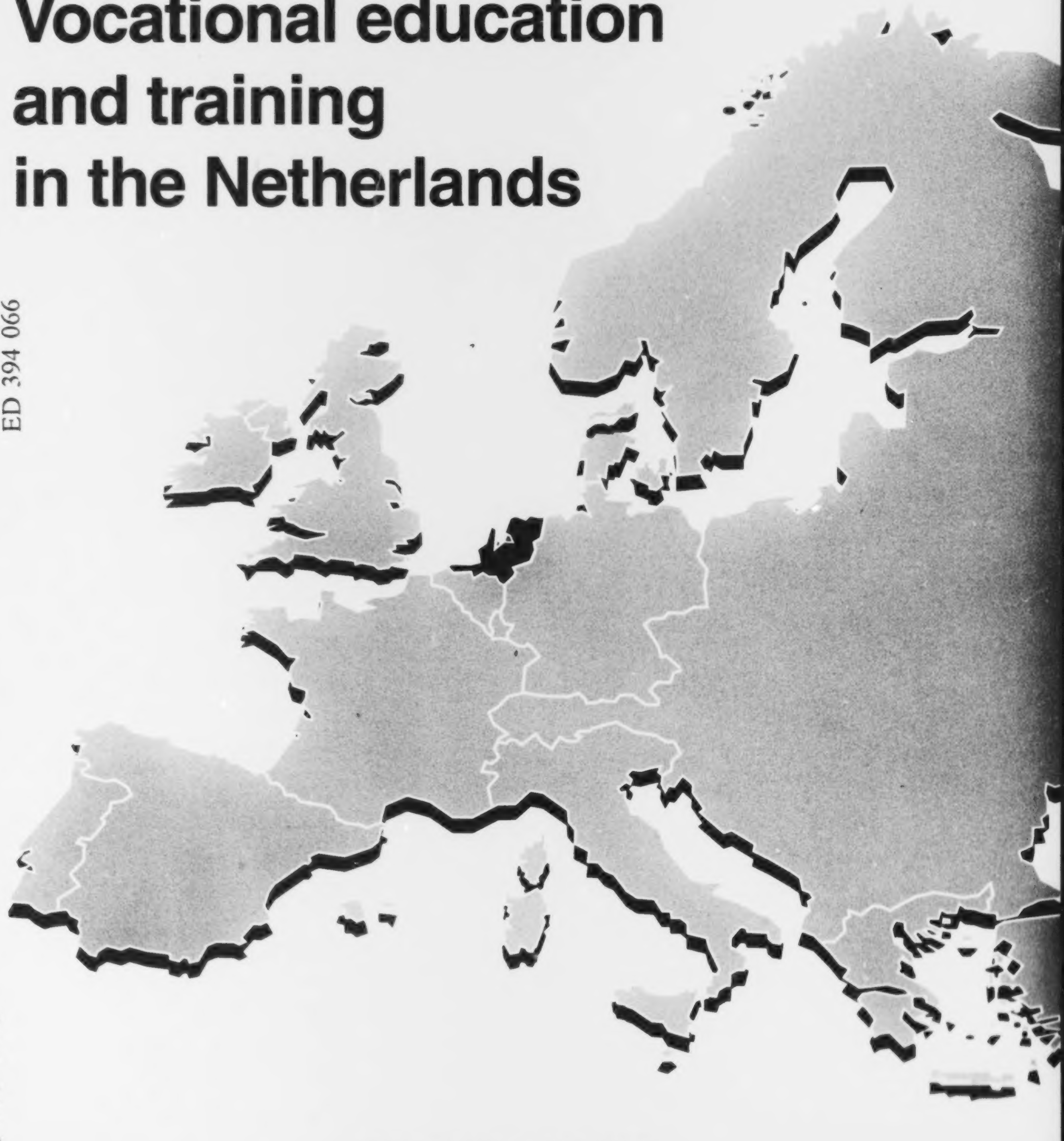

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CEDEFOP

Vocational education and training in the Netherlands

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on behalf of CEDEFOP - European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 1994

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CEDEFOP INTRODUCTION

IS THERE A SYSTEM?

Is there such a thing as a vocational training system? Strictly speaking the answer is no, in that a system assumes a clear set of objectives and a logical and coherent framework for policymaking and execution to achieve them. In reality, vocational training, sandwiched between the education system and the demands of the labour market, caught between the different and varying social, economic, and political priorities of political parties and the social partners, and in the conflicts between different ministries and public powers, located at national, regional, and local level, does not in any of the Community Member States demonstrate the characteristics of a system.

Neverless, this volume and the 11 similar volumes on the other Member States constitute a third generation of CEDEFOP monographs on the training systems in the Member States. In preparing it, much has been learnt from the procedures used for, and the reaction to, the earlier monographs and guide to the vocational training systems, published in 1983.

CONTENT OF THE REPORTS

The present monographs have been prepared by one organization or individual in each of the Member States, following a detailed specification by CEDEFOP of the contents required. These specifications were discussed and agreed at a meeting in Berlin in May 1991.

The basic structure was designed to incorporate:

(a) a presentation of the administrative, demographic, and economic background in which the training system exists;
(b) a brief historical review of the development of the training systems;
(c) a presentation of the arrangements for initial training;
(d) a presentation of the arrangements for continuing training;
(e) an indication of where responsibilities for administering the system are located, including the influence of the social partners;
(f) information on financing system;
(g) an indication of present trends and developments, where authors were asked, in particular, to indicate how far the system has been, or would be, influenced by Community considerations such as the creation of the single European market, mutual recognition of qualifications, the intervention of the Structural Funds, and the Community's education and training programmes.

THE PROCESS OF PREPARATION

Authors were asked to send a copy of their draft report for comment to the members of CEDEFOP's Management Board in their country, and organizations with a major role in the training system. They were requested to incorporate the views expressed to the maximum extent possible. Whereas in general authors were asked to be descriptive and analytical they were encouraged in the last section ((g) above) to express their own views.

Initial draft monographs on each of the Member States were delivered to CEDEFOP in the period between September 1991 and March 1992. As experience had led us to expect, the documents received varied considerably in their approach, content, and presentation. Between January and October 1992 CEDEFOP had a series of intensive meetings with each of the authors, in order to ensure that certain elements were added to the reports and that they respected specific rules with relation to presentation. A novel and very beneficial feature of these meetings was participation in many cases by the translators responsible for translating the volume concerned.

Following these meetings the authors revised their report on the basis of what was said during the meeting, took account of comments received, and included references to recent developments in their country.

USE OF DIAGRAMS

It had been hoped that a large number of diagrams could be developed which would be common to all the monographs, and could then be used to simplify comparison between the Member States by the reader. These could later become the basis of additional publications, such as a guide to the training systems or particular aspects of them. However, we found that while it is relatively easy to obtain and present statistical information on the population, the employment market, and the economy, it remains difficult not only to obtain hard and comparable data on many aspects of the education and training systems of all 12 Member States, but also to present this information in a useful diagrammatic form.

WHO ARE THE USERS?

A question which came up repeatedly in the preparation of the monographs was: what is our primary user group? Our belief is that these monographs will be useful to a wide range of people active in vocational training, including policymakers, practitioners, and researchers, but also to those seeking training in another country, and needing to know the framework in which it is provided. They are therefore, in particular, geared towards the needs of those who participate, or wish to participate in any of the Community programmes involving partnerships, visits, etc., hence the emphasis on having monographs which do not require reference to further documents.

LINKS WITH OTHER COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

CEDEFOP has been anxious that this work should be seen in the context of other Community activities with relation to information on the education and training systems. CEDEFOP has been glad to participate in the joint publication with Eurydice on 'structures of the education and initial training systems in the Member States of the European Community' available in English, French and German. The European unit of Eurydice and CEDEFOP have also tried to ensure that the authors of the monographs on the training systems, and the Eurydice units providing information for the national dossiers on the education systems, should be in contact with each other. The European unit of Eurydice and CEDEFOP similarly are continuing their efforts to ensure that the products of this work should be available to a wide audience and, with this in mind, are investigating possibilities of holding the information on a common automated system.

In a more general way, as indicated above, CEDEFOP considers these monographs should be useful in supporting other activities of the Community in the field of training, and through this the implementation of the new provisions, contained in Articles 126 and 127 of the Maastricht Treaty.

The publication of these monographs does not mark the end of this activity. Arrangements will be made for their updating and their republication as appropriate and as resources permit. CEDEFOP would be extremely pleased to have comments on their usefulness and proposals on how they could be improved, from anybody who has occasion to use them.

Corrado Politi
Deputy Director

J. Michael Adams

F. Alan Clarke

Berlin, November 1992

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FOREWORD

This monograph forms part of the CEDEFOP series on vocational training systems in the Member States of the European Community. We submitted the first version in late 1991 and discussed it with various members of the CEDEFOP staff in the spring of 1992. This discussion led to a number of additions, intended primarily for readers unfamiliar with specific features of the Dutch education system. At the same time we brought the monograph up to date by including information to reflect the situation in mid-1992.

The speed at which Dutch vocational education is developing meant that we were unable to make much use of the previous version in compiling this monograph. This was again apparent in the six months between the submission of the first draft and the present version. And the developments continue. A monograph such as this is, in other words, never complete: it needs to be regularly updated. In Section 4 we have none the less outlined a number of trends and prospects relating to major developments in the near future.

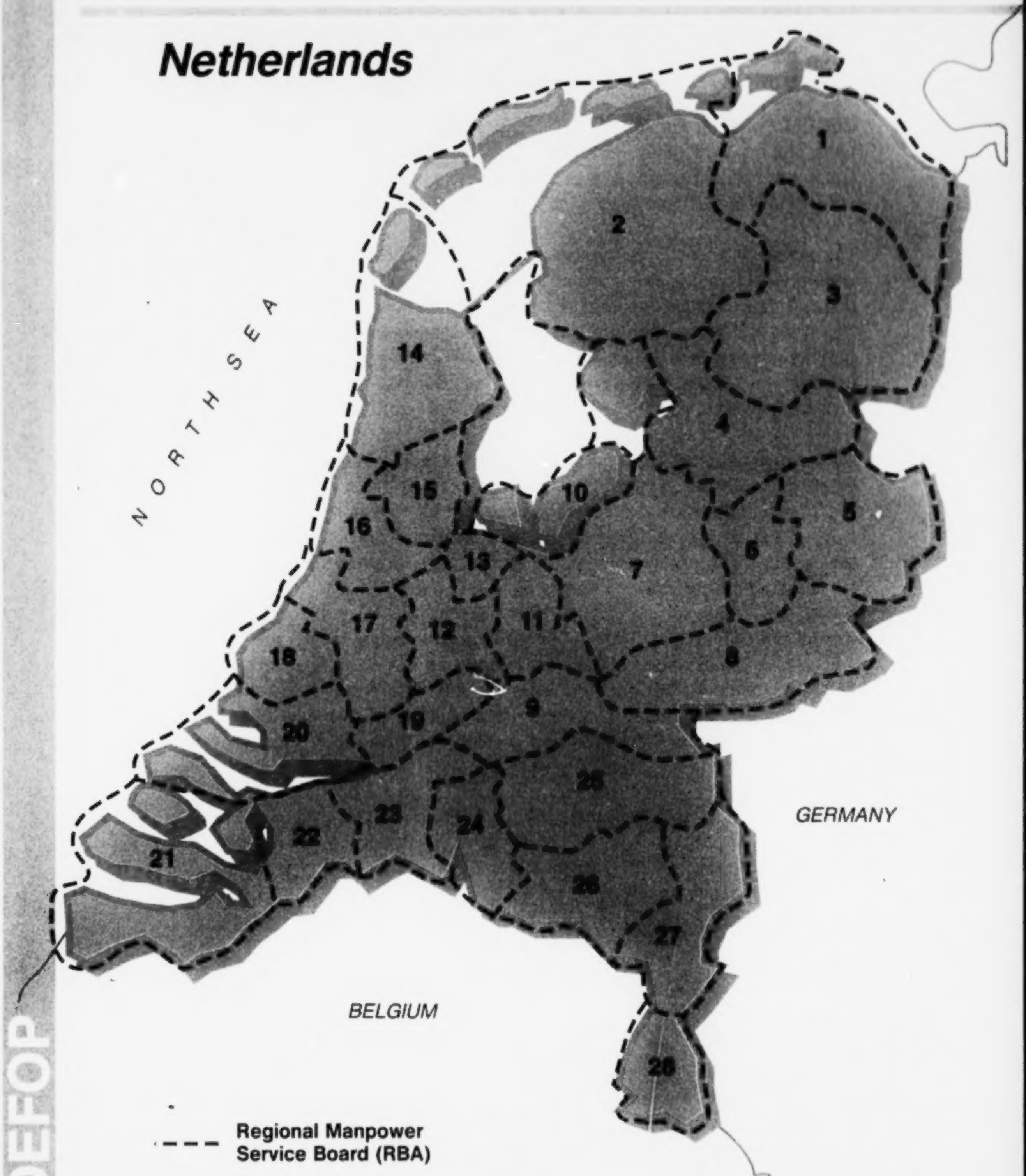
While drawing up this monograph, we obtained factual information from various existing documents. A list of these is to be found at the end of the monograph. We also submitted the draft to various people for their comments: representatives of the government and employers' and employees' organizations and a few of our own colleagues. We, the authors, are naturally responsible for the end-product before you.

It was difficult at times not to exceed the maximum length prescribed by CEDEFOP. Explanations sometimes needed for non-Dutch readers therefore had to be restricted. We trust that, with the help of the suggestions made by the CEDEFOP staff, we have succeeded in producing an overview of the Dutch system of vocational education and training that non-Dutch readers will find comprehensible.

Leon Römkens
Karel Visser
CIBB

's-Hertogenbosch
June 1992

Netherlands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1.1. Political and administrative structure

1.1.1.

The Netherlands is a constitutional monarchy and has had a bicameral parliamentary system since 1848. One indication of the government's strong administrative position is the large proportion of the gross national product consumed by public expenditure, a far larger proportion than in most other industrialized countries.

1.1.2.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries powers in almost all spheres of social life were grouped along political and religious lines. This 'sectarianism' and plurality is characteristic of the administrative and political situation in the Netherlands. A parliamentary majority can therefore be achieved only if different and sometimes changing groups and political parties form coalitions. Although secularization has somewhat reduced the importance of sectarianism as an organizational principle since the 1960s, it is still much in evidence in many sectors of Dutch society, education being a clear example. Thus the compromise reached in 1917 that gave equal status to public education and education provided by private bodies, whether denominational or non-denominational, is enshrined in an article of the basic law on freedom of education. This equality of status is reflected in equal financial rights for public and private education, which are strictly enforced.

1.1.3.

The Dutch Government, usually in close consultation with social groups, has made great efforts to develop the welfare state and to expand the public sector. Despite this, some deep-rooted problems remain. They include:

- the low participation rate in paid employment, particularly among women;
- the high proportion of workers excluded from employment at an early stage;
- social inequality in education; the low level of participation by migrants in Dutch social and cultural life.

These and other persistent problems are recognized, but the numerous solutions put forward by politicians and civil servants have yet to bring any real improvements. Consequently, the government's ability to govern is increasingly questioned. Criticism is levelled at the government's claims to be modernizing socioeconomic life and at its strict control of social facilities. This criticism grew with the economic recession in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The 1990 Social and Cultural Report (Sociaal en Cultureel Rapport 1990), a biennial general review of social and cultural life, asks provocatively whether too much policy does not in itself help to make problems insoluble. The government's task is currently under review, and this process will continue in the 1990s.

In a number of policy areas, government with a more global guiding role, 'administration at arm's length' and greater independence for the various institutions are the crucial aspects of the reorientation of the administration that has been set in motion. The government has, for example, formulated concepts and ideas for increasing the autonomy of educational establishments, its intention being to have forms of block-grant financing and more output control. Some of these ideas have already been implemented. While there is less emphasis on deregulation through privatization in the case of such public services as education, more market-oriented elements are being introduced into them. In higher education and senior secondary vocational education, for instance, an increase in contract research and contract teaching is envisaged. Employers' and employees' organizations are also becoming more heavily involved in the running of vocational education.

In Section 3 we will take a closer look at the rules governing vocational education and training and the positions of the government, the employers' and employees' organizations and the various vocational education institutions in this context.

1.2. Population and labour force

1.2.1.

The Netherlands has a population of 15 million, living in an area of some 41 000 km², which makes it the most densely populated country in the world.

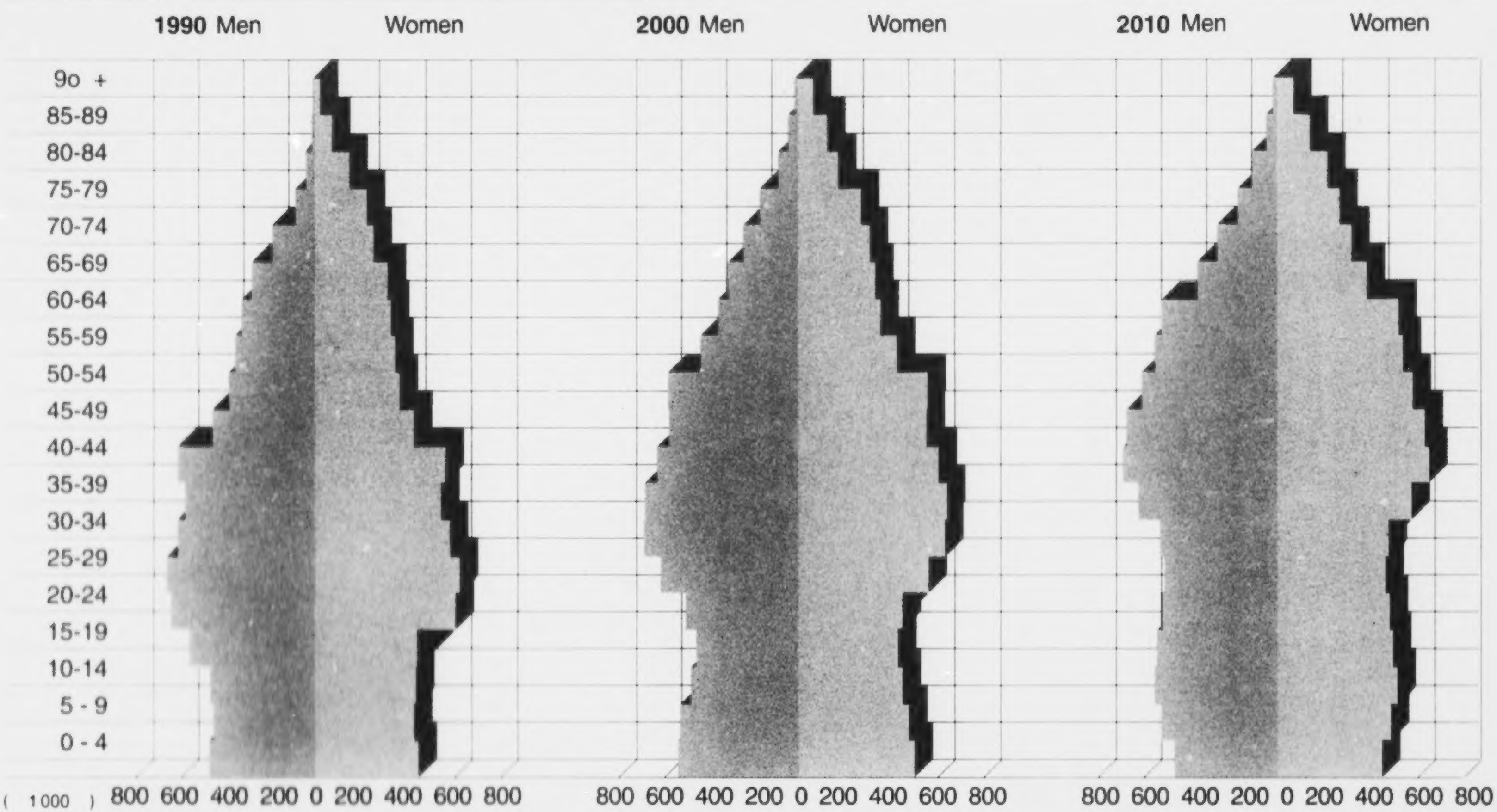
Population, population density and forecast of population growth

	Millions	**Inhabitants per km²**
1940	8.8	268
1950	10.0	309
1960	11.4	352
1970	13.0	384
1980	14.1	415
1985	14.5	426
1990	14.9	439
1991	**15.0**	**442**
1995	15.4	**Forecast as per the 'intermediate variant', which is based on the hypotheses of population growth considered most likely**
2000	15.9	
2010	16.4	

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics CBS, *Statistisch jaarboek* 1992.

Age structure

Estimate as at 1 January 1990 — Forecast 2000 and 2010



Source: Eurostat – Demographic Statistics 1992.

The structure of the Dutch population has changed significantly in recent decades. High birth rates and low death rates dominated longer than in other countries during the period of reconstruction after the Second World War. The population continued to grow quickly until the end of the 1960s. The annual birth rate then fell from 240 000 to around 180 000 at the end of the 1970s.

At present, the population is growing mainly because the birth rate is higher than the death rate:
1980: 4.7 %
1985: 3.8 %
1989: 4 %

Growth due to immigration being higher than emigration plays a lesser role:
1980: 3.7 %
1985: 1.7 %
1989: 2.6 %

In 1991 4.6 % of the total population were non-Dutch nationals, compared with 3.4 % in 1980. In addition, 1 to 2 % of the population are of foreign origin, but have Netherlands nationality.

1.2.2.

Cultural and ethnic diversity is increasing. Until 1970 most foreigners coming to work in the Netherlands were from the Mediterranean countries. Since then most immigrants have come to join their families or migrated from (former) parts of the Kingdom (Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles). Reverse migration is negligible.

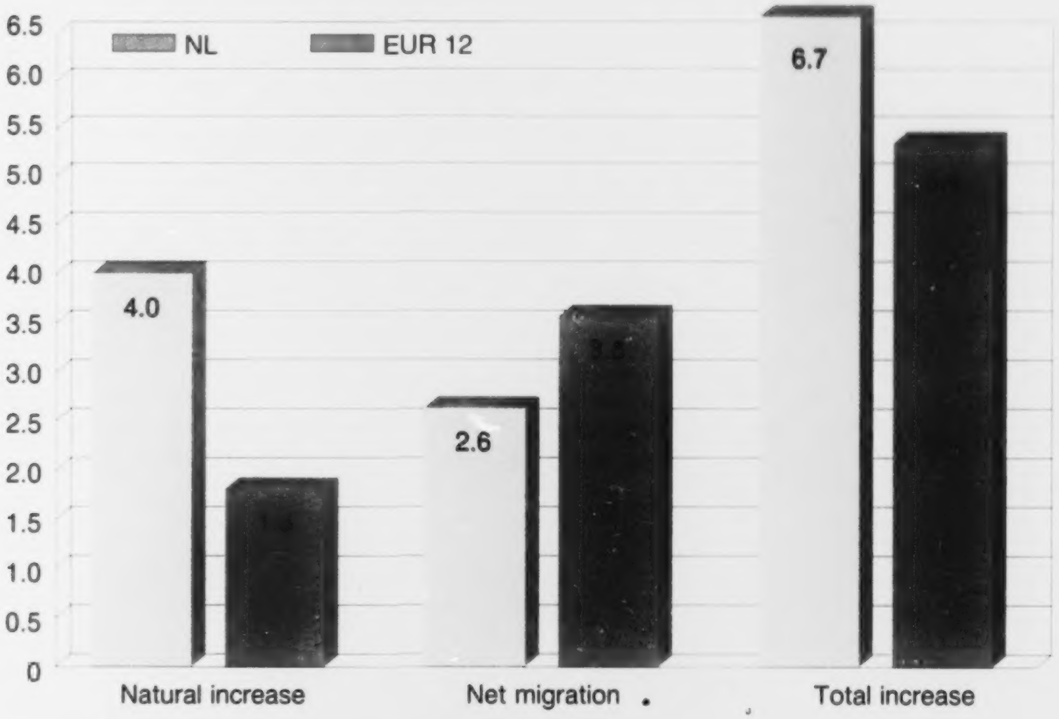
Education is immediately or eventually influenced by the excess of births over deaths and of immigrants over emigrants. Over the next 10 years the population will become steadily older; at the same time the influence of the decreasing proportion of the young in the population will continue to diminish.

Population structure and forecasts (%)

Age	1980	1985	1991	1995	2000	2010
0 to 19	31.5	28.3	25.2	24.4	24.4	23.4
20 to 39	31.5	33.2	33.0	62.4	62.0	61.6
40 to 64	25.6	26.6	28.9			
65 to 79	9.3	9.4	10.0	10.1	10.4	11.1
80+	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.8

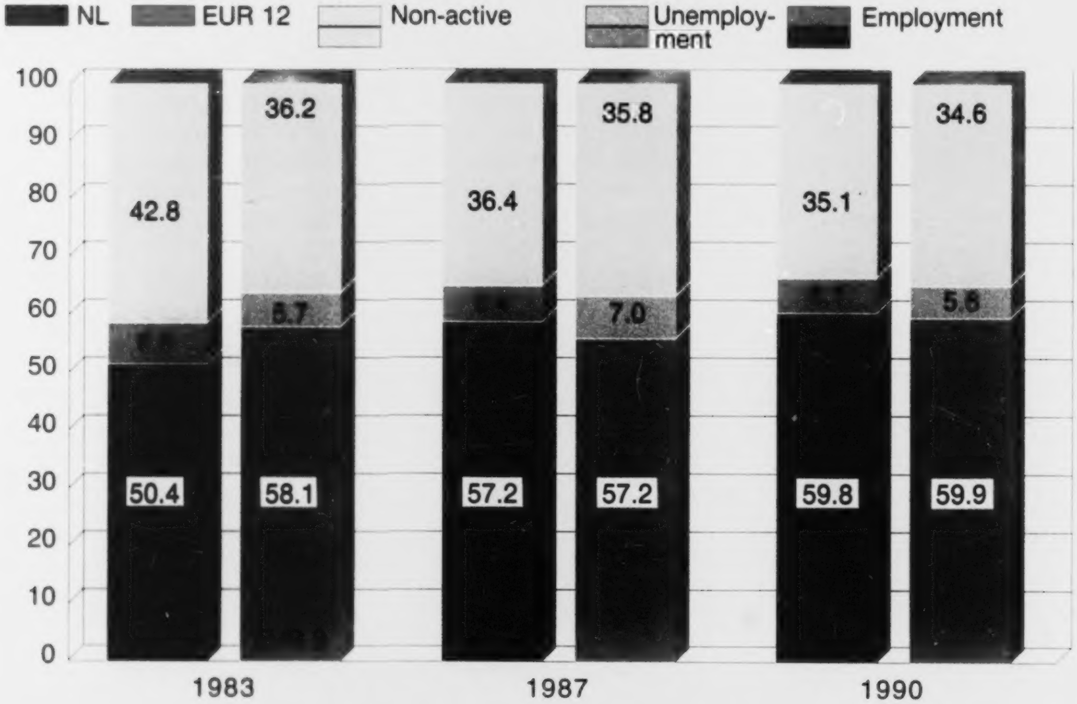
Source: CBS, *Statistisch jaarboek 1992.*

Change of the population in 1989



Source: Eurostat, *A social portrait of Europe*, 1991.

Population aged 14 to 64 according to economic status 1983, 1987 and 1990 in %



Source: Eurostat, *Labour force surveys.*

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1.2.3.

The proportion of the potential labour force aged 20 and over will remain almost unchanged in the next few decades. However, the structure of the labour force is expected to change as a result of demographic trends. The changing structure of the 15 to 64 age group is apparent from the following figures: between 1985 and 2000 the proportion of 15 to 29-year-olds will fall from 38 to 28 %, while the proportion of 30 to 49-year-olds will rise from 41 to 46 %. Over the same period the proportion of 50 to 64-year-olds will rise from 21 to 26 %.

As a result of these demographic trends employers will be increasingly dependent for the next 10 years on the population already in employment. The recruitment of school-leavers with new know-how and skills will become relatively less important. The interest taken in the continuing training of workers will therefore continue to grow.

1.2.4.

The potential labour force comprises all persons aged between 15 and 64. For various reasons, however, some of those aged between 15 and 64 (an age group which accounted for 69 % of the population in 1990) do not form part of the labour market: people in full-time education, people who have taken early retirement, people who do not want jobs, in the short term at least, and people who are incapacitated. For statistical purposes, these categories are not deemed to form part of the labour force.[1] The numbers involved are considerable in some cases. The number of incapacitated people, for example, is equivalent to some 13 to 14 % of the labour force.[1]

The participation rate is 68 % (1990), in which two in three 15 to 64-year-olds form part of the labour force (i.e. people available for work, whether or not in employment). The participation rate among men has been 81 % for some years. Among women it rose from 50 % in 1987 to 54 % in 1990. Among men and women combined it was 58% in 1980 and 60 % in 1985. This rise in the number of economically active people is primarily due to the growth in the number of part-time jobs, rather than any increase in employment in terms of man-years. As relatively more women than men have part-time jobs, the rise in the participation rate is attributable to the greater number of women in employment. Of the non-working labour force (about 10 % in 1990), almost 60 % are officially registered as seeking employment: the registered unemployed.

The following is a comparative diagram showing the conceptual framework and the corresponding figures (1989/1990).

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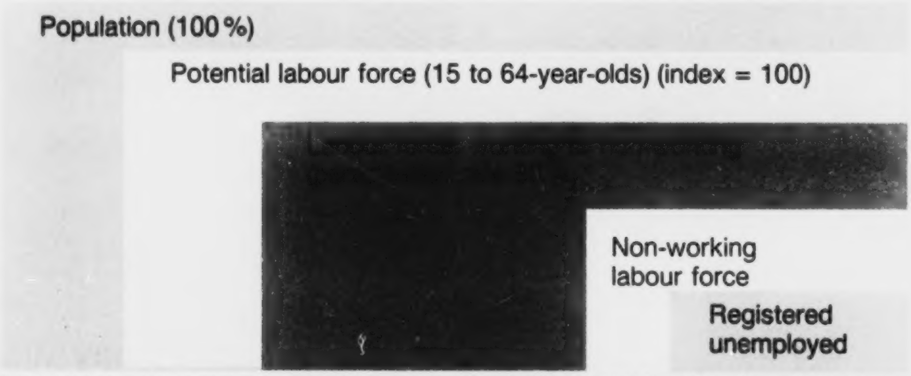

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[1] For statistical purposes the labour force comprises workers (employed, self-employed and working family members) and non-workers (persons receiving unemployment benefit and persons actively seeking work through employment offices).

The participation rate among women, young people and non-indigenous people is lower than the national average of 68 %. The figures for the various groups are shown below.

Participation rate of specific categories in 1989 (%)

	Men	Women	Total
Indigenous[1]	81.4	52.5	67.1
Non-indigenous[1]	75.5	40.6	59.9
15 to 24 year-olds	62.2	58.9	60.6
25 to 64 year-olds	86.9	49.9	68.7
Total	**81.1**	**52.0**	**66.8**

[1] See glossary, Annex 4.

Source: CBS, *Enquête beroepsbevolking* 1989.

The participation rate among young people is below the average because of the large numbers in education. It is not therefore an accurate reflection of their position in the labour market, since education improves their employment prospects. A low participation rate is therefore a good sign.

The participation rate among women is low, and this is especially true of non-indigenous women; the number of working women increases somewhat each year.

The difference in the participation rate as between indigenous and non-indigenous people is less pronounced among men than among women. This is partly due to the age structure of the non-indigenous population. As it includes a relatively large proportion of young people, women are less inclined to go out to work.

Of the indigenous members of the labour force, 9% are non-working. The next table shows that the figure is slightly lower only in the case of indigenous men. The percentage of non-working non-indigenous people is significantly higher; it is surprising to find that more non-indigenous men are non-working than non-indigenous women.

The working and non-working labour force, by ethnic origin and sex, in 1989 (%)

	Men	Women	Total
Indigenous			
working	93	88	91
non-working	7	12	9
Non-indigenous			
working	62	65	63
non-working	38	35	37
Young people (15 to 24 year-olds)			
working	88	85	87
non-working	12	15	13

Source: CBS, *Enquête beroepsbevolking* 1989.

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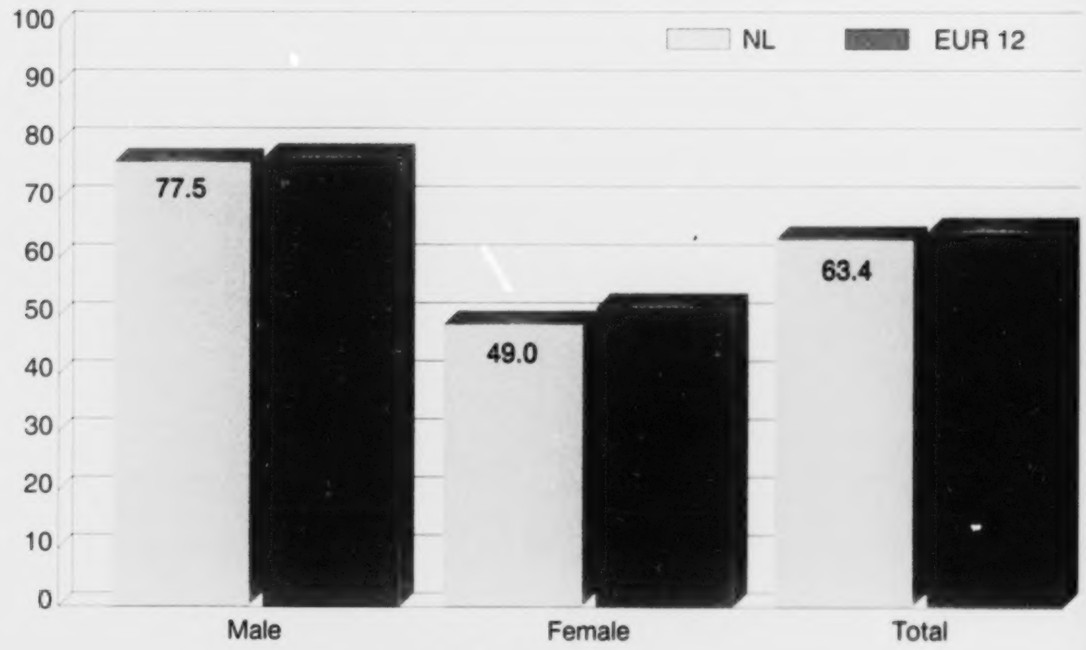
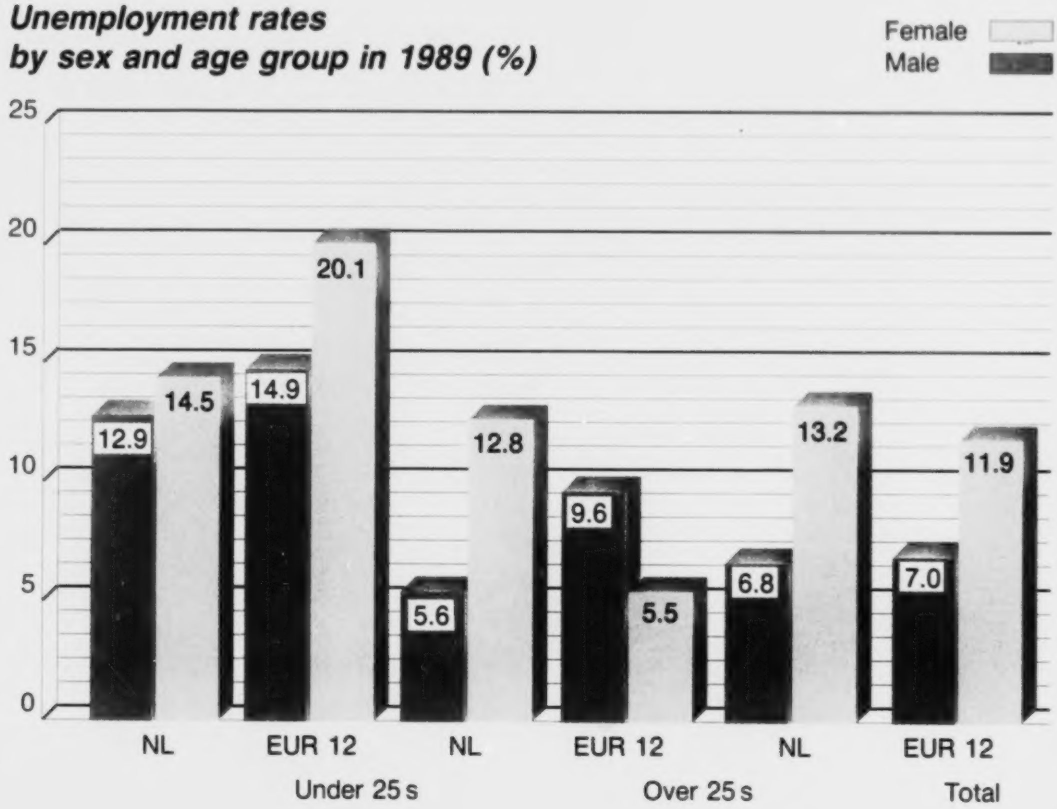
Activity rate of population aged 14 to 64 in 1988 (%)



Source: Eurostat, *A social portrait of Europe 1991.*

Unemployment rates by sex and age group in 1989 (%)



Source: Eurostat, *A social portrait of Europe 1991.*

The table does not include separate figures for the registered long-term unemployed, i.e. those unemployed for more than one year. In the 15 to 24 age group 40 % of unemployed men have been out of work for more than one year, the corresponding figure for young women being 36 %. In the 25 to 64 age group 65 % of men and 58 % of women have been unemployed for longer than a year.

Some 85 % of the registered unemployed belong to one of the above groups: young people, women, non-indigenous people and/or long-term unemployed men over the age of 24. Although women have benefited considerably from the growth of employment in the past, often by taking part-time jobs, various obstacles prevent certain women from seeing any chance of (re-)entering the labour market:

- the difficulty of combining employment and looking after children owing to the lack of (non-school) child-care facilities;
- the lack of recent work experience;
- little and/or out-of-date training;
- the fact that part-time work hardly makes a real contribution to income.

Registered unemployment among young people has been falling for some years. The percentage is still above the national average, but this is primarily due to the short-term unemployment of school-leavers.

Since reaching its lowest point in the early 1980s, the trend in employment for women and young people has been favourable. Both categories have derived greater than average benefit from the growth of employment. This growth is expected to fall off in the 1990s. Registered unemployment in both categories is also falling. For non-indigenous people the picture is quite different. This population group was badly affected both by the decline in industrial employment in the 1970s and 1980s and by the growing demand for better qualified personnel. The percentage of non-indigenous unskilled workers is two to three times higher than among indigenous workers. Poorer education and training is one explanation for this high level of unemployment, since employment prospects largely depend on previous education and training.

1.3. The economy

1.3.1.

The Netherlands has an open economy: exports of goods and services account for just over 50 % of the gross national product. By virtue of its location in a fertile delta area, at the crossroads of various major economic regions, it performs an important transit and distribution function, to which the infrastructure of trade and the commercial services is geared. With an eye to the internal European market, efforts are being made to improve the basic position of the Dutch economy, not least because of the emphasis placed at this 'gateway to Europe' on exports within the European Community. This has implications for education when it comes to optimizing language skills, the international exchange of teaching staff and students and the continuing training of workers. 'Moving back frontiers' is of fundamental importance for this section of society.

1.3.2.
Since the early 1980s the Dutch Government has pursued a policy that focuses on the restriction (relative in some respects) of the public sector and the improvement of the private sector's position. In 1987 public expenditure accounted for 60 % of the gross national product; this percentage is now becoming progressively smaller. Education has not escaped the effects of this policy, given the recurrent question of how to pay for various services in the public sector. Major economies have already been made in parts of the public sector. This is closely linked to the government's desire to reduce the budget deficit. With the revival of economic growth since 1985, the chances are that the country's competitive position will continue to strengthen. Economic growth from 1983 to 1989 averaged 2.2 %.

1.3.3.
The structure of employment in the Netherlands differs from the European average. Industry, and particularly the metal-working industry, accounts for a relatively small proportion of total employment. The service sector, especially education, health care and social services, is a large employer.

Sectoral breakdown of employment in 1989 (%)

	EUR 12	**Netherlands**
Agriculture	**7.0**	**4.7**
Industry	**32.5**	**26.5**
Chemical	3.6	2.9
Metal	9.8	6.5
Construction	7.2	7.2
Other industry	11.9	9.8
Services	**60.6**	**68.8**
Trade, hotels and catering	18.9	18.7
Transport	5.8	6.1
Banking and insurance	7.6	10.6
Government	7.9	6.5
Other (non-commercial services)	20.2	26.9

Source: Eurostat, *Basic Statistics for the Community*, 1991.

The structure of employment is likely to change in the next few years: total employment is forecast to grow by 16% from 1985 to 2000. For the various sectors of the labour market this will mean:

agriculture	− 9%,
industry	+ 2%,
construction	+ 11%,
commercial services	+ 26%,
non-commercial services and government	+ 21%

Source: Central Planning Bureau, 1989

By the year 2000 the growth of employment will create a situation where the service sector accounts for more than 70% of all jobs.

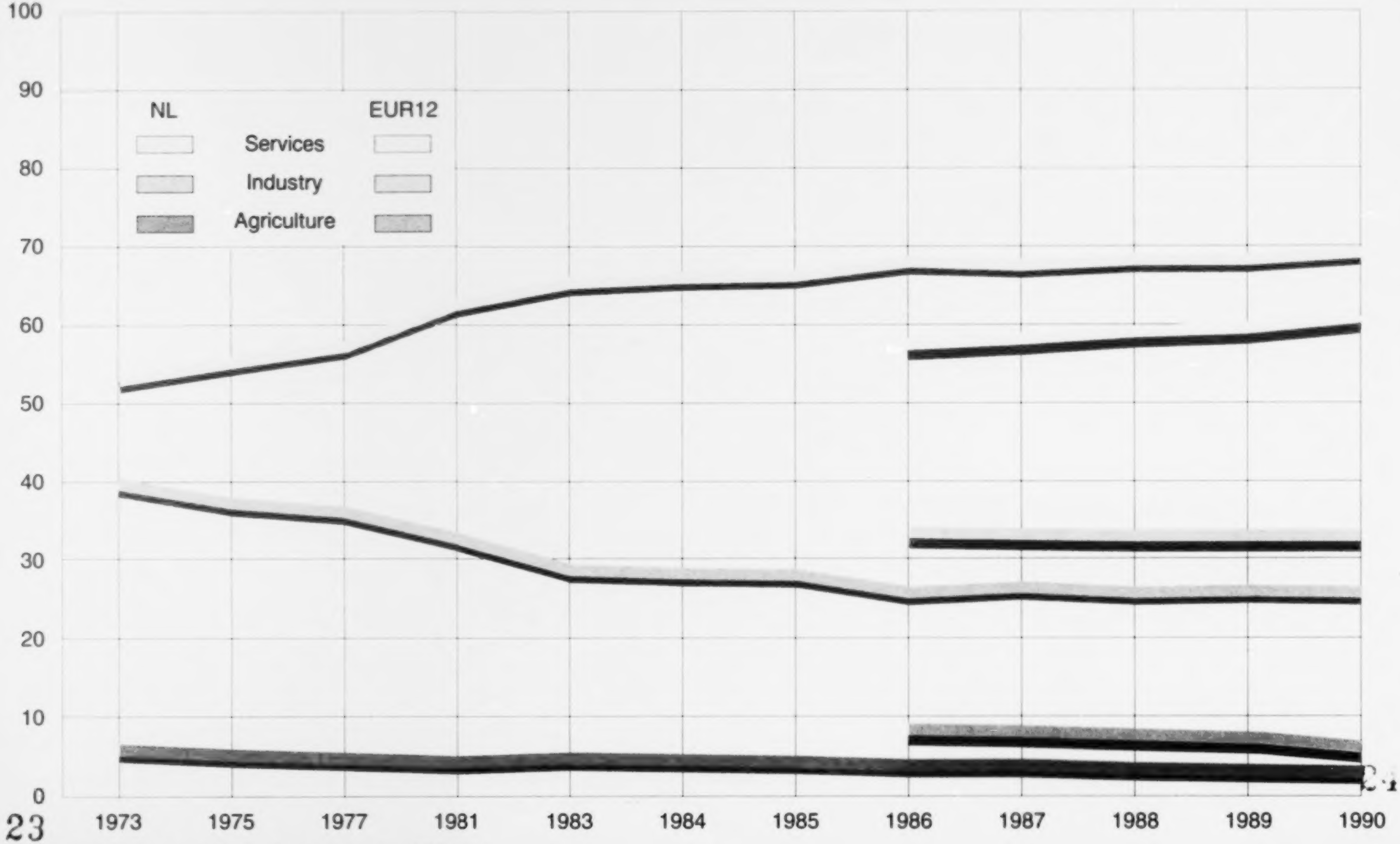
Persons employed in industry and services by broad NACE group

%	1983	1987		1990	
	NL	NL	EUR 12	NL	EUR 12
Industry					
Energy and water	1.5	1.5	2.0	1.0	1.5
Mineral extraction, chemicals	3.4	3.4	4.5	2.7	3.6
Metal manufacture, engineering	8.3	7.8	11.6	6.5	10.0
Other manufacturing industries	10.3	9.4	11.5	9.0	10.4
Building and civil engineering	7.9	7.6	7.2	7.1	7.8
Services					
Distributive trades, hotels	15.8	17.7	16.0	18.9	18.9
Transport and communication	7.0	6.8	6.4	6.2	5.9
Banking, finance, insurance	8.7	10.1	7.7	11.2	8.0
Public administration	8.1	7.1	9.7	6.2	7.6
Other services	27.0	26.5	20.9	26.7	19.7

Source: Eurostat, *Labour force surveys*, 1983, 1987 and 1990.

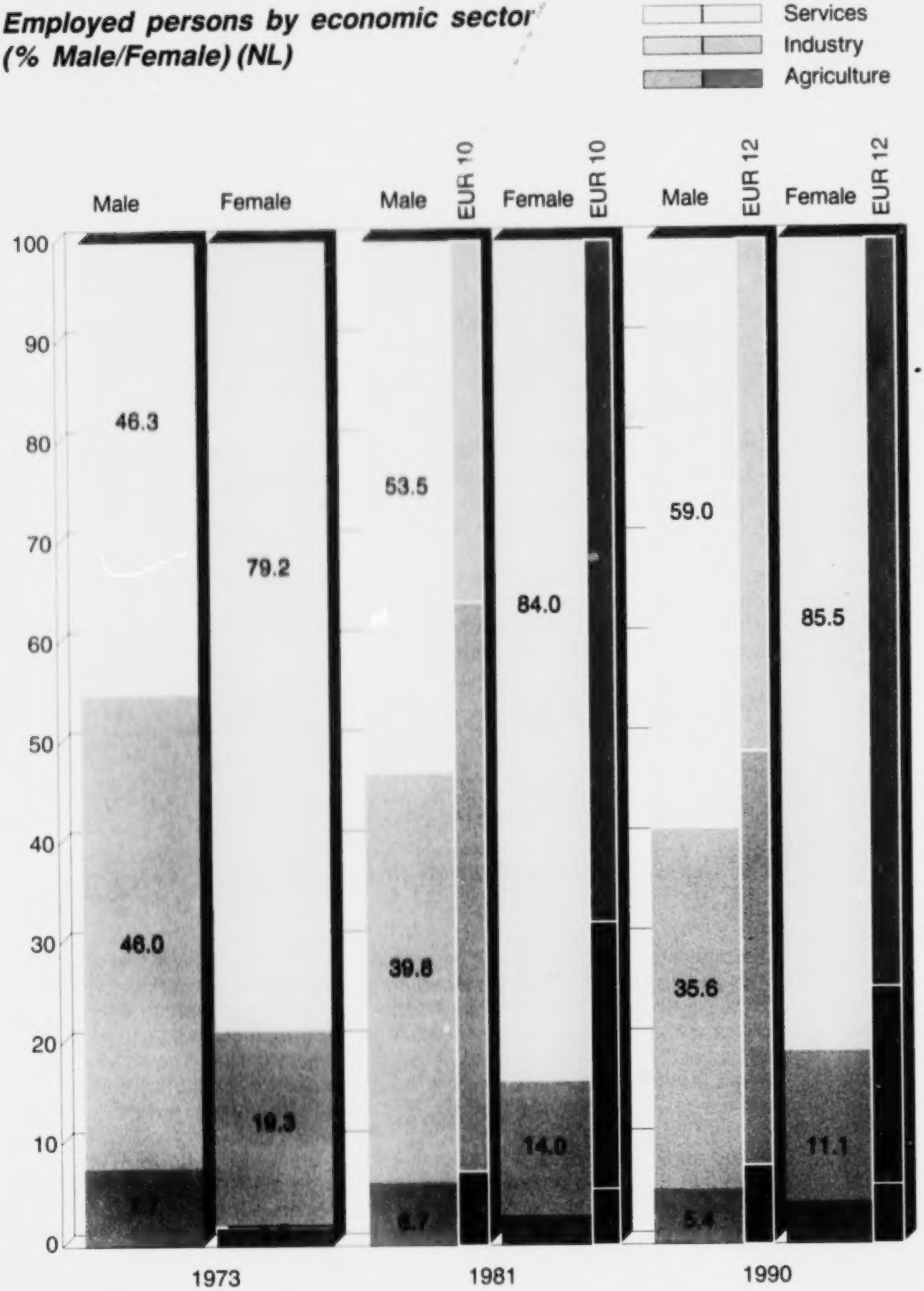
NACE = Nomenclature des Activités économiques dans la Communauté Européenne / Classification of economic activities in the European Community.

Employment by economic sector



Source: Eurostat, *Labour force surveys*, 1980–91.

Employed persons by economic sector (% Male/Female) (NL)



Source: Eurostat, *Labour force surveys.*

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THE DUTCH EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM

2.1. Some features of the Dutch education system

2.1.1.
To ensure a proper understanding of the Dutch education system (which features numerous organizations and a wide range of legislation), this introductory section outlines a number of its basic characteristics. The various aspects will be considered in greater depth elsewhere in this study.

Compulsory education

2.1.2.
11 years (age 5 to 16). 16-year-olds no longer in full-time education are required to attend school for one or two days a week.

Financing

2.1.3.
The Ministry of Education and Science finances all ordinary (initial) education except agricultural education, which is the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries. Education is largely financed from tax revenue; school and course fees make a small contribution.

Secondary schools are able to earn additional income by undertaking activities under contract for third parties. Certain types of ordinary adult education are partly financed by the Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural Affairs and the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment.

Student financing

2.1.4.
Depending on their parents' income, students in secondary and higher education may be eligible for financial assistance.

Central and local administration

2.1.5.
A distinctive feature of the Dutch education system is the combination of a central education policy and decentralized administration and school management. Central government ensures a satisfactory spread of appropriate educational facilities; it specifies the minimum number of students, the subjects to be taught and the quality requirements to be satisfied by teaching staff. The provincial authorities are responsible, among other things, for ensuring that there are enough State schools (in addition to Catholic, Protestant and general private schools).

The municipal authorities are responsible for the State schools. They also ensure that State and private schools comply with the Compulsory Education Act (Leerplichtwet) and share additional resources equally among State and private schools. Legislation currently in preparation will give schools increasing independence.

Umbrella organizations and associations of the school boards

2.1.6.

Each 'branch' (Catholic, Protestant, general private and State education) has an umbrella organization representing its interests. There are also a number of associations of school boards, which consider specific aspects of policy.

Support structure

2.1.7.

The Dutch education system has an extensive support structure. The organizations operating in this field have the task of helping schools to increase their problem-solving capacity and of systematically developing and improving education.

The Education Support Structure Act (Wet op het Onderwijsverzorging) makes a distinction between general and specialist support bodies. The former seek to improve the way the school as a whole is run. The latter concern themselves with research on education, quality measurement and curricular development. The former include the Algemeen Pedagogisch Studiecentrum (APS: General Educational Advisory Centre), the Christelijk Pedagogisch Studiecentrum (CPS: Protestant Educational Advisory Centre) and the Katholiek Pedagogisch Studiecentrum (KPC: Catholic Educational Advisory Centre). They focus primarily on the development of and advice on secondary education. Counselling individual pupils does not fall within their terms of reference. The specialist support bodies include the Stichting voor Onderzoek van het Onderwijs (SVO: Educational Research Institute), the Centraal Instituut voor Toetsontwikkeling (CITO: National Institute for Educational Measurement) and the Stichting Leerplanontwikkeling (SLO: Foundation for Curriculum Development).

The Centrum Innovatie Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven (CIBB: Centre for the Innovation of Vocational Education and Training), a national institute for innovation in the field of vocational education and related forms of education and training, including adult education, is not governed by the Education Support Structure Act. Its activities cover the whole spectrum from the analysis of occupations and the development of teaching aids and curricula to the introduction and coordination of innovative projects in vocational education. The CIBB is governed by the Adult Education (general provisions) Act (Kaderwet Volwasseneneducatie).

Finally, the National Adult Education Study and Development Centre (SVE) provides a support service for adult education.

Schools inspectorates

2.1.8.

Under the authority of the Minister for Education and Science, the schools inspectorate ensures compliance with the rules and promotes the development of education. In higher education a system of internal quality control is joined by periodical external quality checks by 'review committees'.

2.2. Education: an overview

The Dutch education system consists of five main elements:

(i) **Primary education**[1]

(ii) **Special education**[1]

(iii) **Secondary education**[1]

First stage:
junior secondary vocational education (LBO),[1]
junior general secondary education (MAVO)[1]
the lower classes of senior general secondary education (HAVO)[1]
pre-university education (VWO)[1]

Second stage:
upper classes of HAVO and VWO,
senior secondary vocational education (MBO)[1],
the apprenticeship system[1] and education for young people[1]

(iv) **Higher education:**
higher vocational education (HBO)[1]
university education (WO)

(v) **Adult education**

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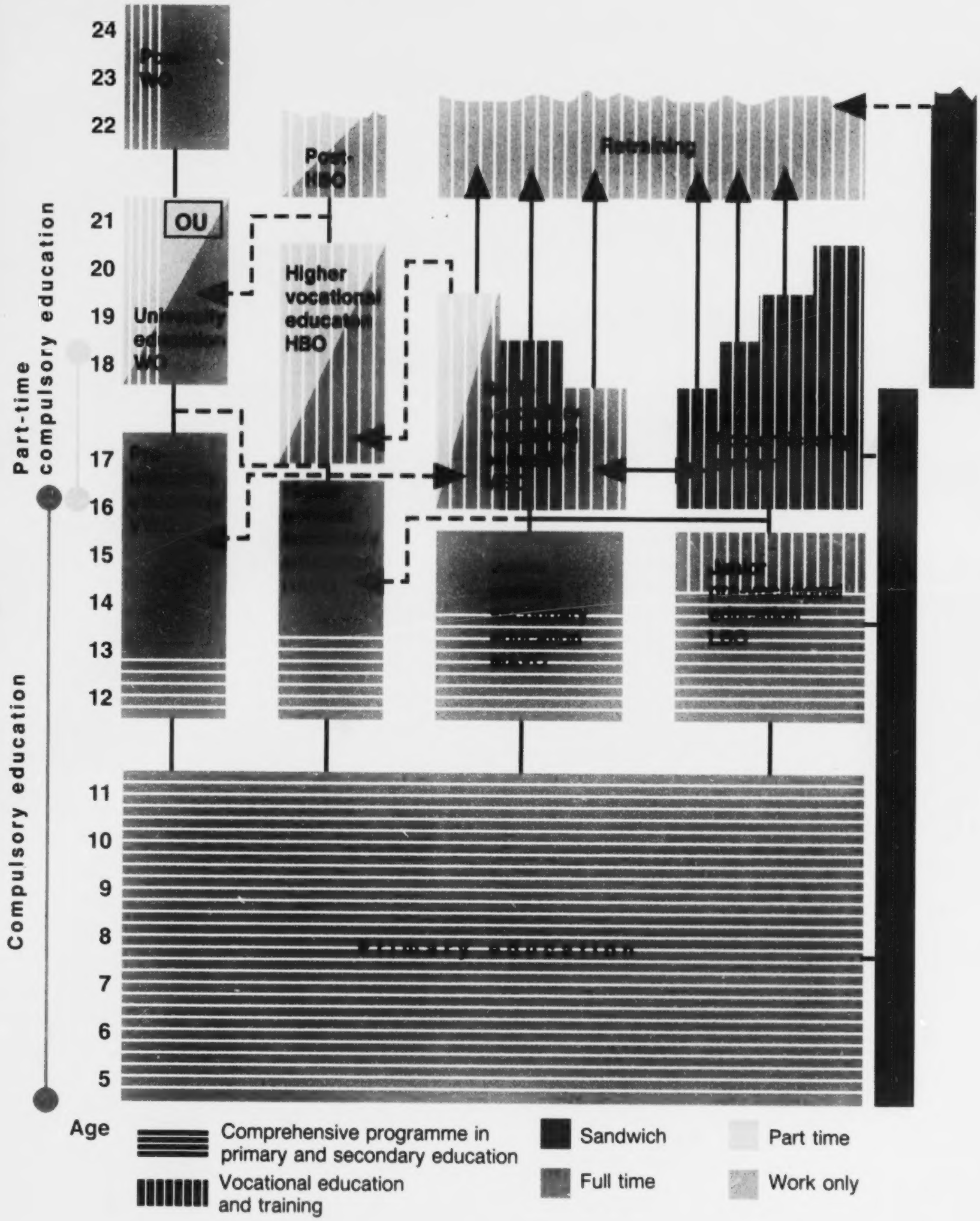
[1] See glossary, Annex 4.

Overview of the Dutch education and training system


Post-WO
Post-HBO
Retraining
OU
University education WO
Higher vocational education HBO
Junior ... LBO
Primary education
24
23
22
21
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
Age
Part-time compulsory education
Compulsory education
Comprehensive programme in primary and secondary education
Vocational education and training
Sandwich
Full time
Part time
Work only

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Number of pupils, students and apprentices in Dutch education, 1980–90 (in thousands)

		1980	1985	1990
Primary education		1 743	1 496	1 443
Special education		91	100	109
Secondary education				
LBO		403	359	233
MAVO HAVO VWO		824	804	681
MBO	full-time	168	276	286
Apprenticeship system (primary and secondary)		79	83	130
Higher education				
Higher vocational education	full-time	132	149	180
	part-time	79	73	54
University education	full-time	149	159	166
	part-time	4	10	14

Sources: SCP report 1990;
CBS, *Statistisch Jaarboek*, 1992.

The above table shows the numbers involved in the various components. It is difficult to give precise figures on participation in the various forms of adult education because definitions of the term vary. We have therefore taken the figures given in the CBS statistics.

Participants in certain sectors of adult education (in thousands)

	1980	1985	1990
Basic education	44	73	98
Open University	19	18	29
MBO, off-the-job education and education for young working people	153	207	213
Recognized correspondence courses		187	226

Source: CBS, *Statistisch Jaarboek* (various issues).

Primary education

2.2.1.
Primary education is intended for pupils from the ages of 4 to 12. It is so arranged that the pupils can complete a process of development without interruption. With the entry into force of the Primary Education Act (Wet op het Basisonderwijs) in 1985, the separate infant and ordinary primary schools gave way to primary schools. As a result of the decline in the birth rate the number of pupils in primary education fell from 1.7 million in 1980 to 1.4 million in 1990 (see above table).

Special education

2.2.2.
Special education is intended for pupils with learning and behavioural difficulties and pupils who, as a result of a mental, sensory or physical handicap, need more help with their education than ordinary primary education can offer. There are 14 types of special education. The age at which pupils are admitted varies from 3 to 6 years, depending on the type of school. The special education system has grown over the years, despite the decline in the birth rate. Special secondary education is intended for pupils from 12 to 20. Almost 50 % of those emerging from special secondary education go on to various forms of pre-vocational and day-release education. This development, coupled with the fact that day-release education is having to cope with growing numbers of poorly educated people from other sources, means that day-release education will increasingly have to cope with participants with a low level of prior education.

2.2.3.
The government is promoting a policy of combining primary and special education, one aim being to call a halt to the continuous growth of special education. The figures in the above table show that this policy has so far had little impact.

Secondary education

2.2.4.
Secondary education follows primary and special education. It is intended for pupils from the age of 12 to 18-20. It is divided into first and second stages, the first formally comprising LBO, MAVO and the first three years of HAVO and VWO.

2.2.5.

The second stage comprises the fourth and fifth years of HAVO, the fourth, fifth and sixth years of VWO, MBO, the apprenticeship system and education for young people. With the exception of the apprenticeship system and education for young working people, all secondary education is governed by the Secondary Education Act (Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs - WVO).

The main aim of this act is to facilitate the transition from one form of education to another. To this end, the various types of school may form combined schools providing more than one type of secondary education.

Pupils in secondary education spend at least one year in a transitional class, after which they are assigned to the most appropriate type of school for them.

2.2.6.

We will begin by considering the first stage of secondary education; departing from the above division into first and second stages, we will include the upper level of HAVO and VWO in this analysis of the first stage.

2.2.7.

LBO is both general and pre-vocational. The first two years of the four-year LBO course are devoted largely to general education, which is then combined with vocational guidance in the last two years. Within LBO there are six different streams:

- technical
- agricultural
- commercial
- home economics
- nautical
- commercial.

After LBO pupils can go on to MBO, short MBO courses, the apprenticeship system and education for young people.

Technical, home economics and agricultural education also includes sections for individualized LBO. From 1980 to 1989 changes occurred in the subsequent careers of successful pupils: the proportion of boys successfully completing (technical) LBO and going on to other than full-time education, including the apprenticeship system, fell from 80 % to 66 %, while the proportion opting for (short) MBO courses rose from 17 % to 30 %. Much the same is true of girls in domestic science and technical education: the proportion going on to other than full-time education (including the apprenticeship system) fell from 58 % in 1980 to 50 % in 1989, while the proportion opting for (short) MBO courses rose from 42 % to 50 % (see table below).

LBO can be completed with one of four grades (A – the lowest, B, C or D – the highest). In qualification terms, grades C and D are comparable to MAVO. It is possible to combine different examination levels in different subjects.

2.2.8.

Junior general secondary education (MAVO) takes four years and is primarily intended as preparation for senior secondary vocational education. From 1980 to 1989 the proportion of boys successfully completing MAVO rose from 52% to 70%, the proportion of girls doing so from 43% to 70%. This increase was accompanied by a decline in the proportions going on to the higher levels of HAVO and VWO (see table below).

2.2.9.

Senior general secondary education (HAVO) takes five years and is mainly intended as preparation for higher vocational education. As this transition poses numerous practical problems, many pupils continue their studies in the fifth year of pre-university education or senior secondary vocational education after obtaining their HAVO certificate. The growth in the proportion of pupils going from HAVO to MBO is particularly noticeable (see table below).

2.2.10.

Pre-university education (VWO) takes six years and prepares pupils for study at a university or college of higher education. There are three types of VWO school:

- the gymnasium (classical grammar school)
- the atheneum (modern grammar school)
- the lyceum (a combination of gymnasium and atheneum).

In recent years the number of lyceums has been rising at the expense of gymnasiums and atheneums. Among holders of VWO certificates, the growth in the number of girls going on to university education is particularly striking: from 1980 to 1988 the proportion rose from 40% to 49%; this compares with a slight increase in the case of boys, from 62% to 66%.

The table below gives an overview of the most important figures in this section on transitions in the education system.

Subsequent education of pupils successfully completing LBO, MAVO (1989 and 1980 figures), HAVO and VWO (1988 and 1980 figures), in %

Entering / Leaving	MBO		Part-time education (especially apprenticeship system)		VWO/HAVO		HBO		VWO	
	1988/89	1980	1988/89	1980	1988/89	1980	1988/89	1980	1988/89	1980
LBO (technical)										
• boys	30	17	66	80						
LBO (domestic science and technical)										
• girls	50	42	50	58						
MAVO										
• boys	77	52	2	13	19	31	0	2		
• girls	70	43	8	25	20	39	0	1		
HAVO										
• boys	31	10	15	33			55	57		
• girls	24	9	32	52			44	39		
VWO										
• boys	1	0	12	16			22	22	66	62
• girls	3	1	22	27			26	32	49	40

Source: CBS, *Statistisch Jaarboek*, 1992; Onderwijsmatrix 1988.

2.2.11.
The first three years at the types of secondary schools which are still separate at the moment are being combined to provide basic education, in which some 80 % of teaching time will be devoted to a core curriculum of 15 subjects. The schools themselves will decide how to use the remaining 20 %. In principle, these subjects are compulsory for all pupils. They are Dutch, English, French or German, mathematics, biology, physics and chemistry, information technology, history and politics, geography, economics, technology, care, physical education, creative arts/music/drama or dance. At schools in the province of Friesland, the Frisian language is also a compulsory subject. In modern languages the emphasis will be on communicative skills. After basic education such other languages as Spanish, Greek and Russian may be taught. Technology and care are new subjects. The relevant bill was passed by Parliament in 1992, and the Basic Education Act (Wet op de Basisvorming) will enter into force in 1993.

The government's arguments for the introduction of basic education are that it will:

- make young people better educated;
- strengthen the community's cultural base;
- adapt young people to the requirements of the social environment;
- postpone the time at which educational and vocational choices have to be made;
- promote equality between boys and girls.

Besides the upper level of HAVO and VWO discussed above, the second stage of secondary education includes MBO and the courses that form part of the apprenticeship system. These will be briefly considered in this section. Sections 2.4.1. to 2.4.16. give a more detailed description.

2.2.12.
Senior secondary vocational education (MBO) follows on in particular from LBO and MAVO. However, it is also attracting growing numbers of HAVO pupils. MBO has a long variant (three or four years) and a short variant (two to three years). There are also part-time variants for a number of long MBO courses. Practical training often takes the form of periods of work experience.

MBO prepares pupils for middle-management posts in industry, the service sector and government.

The short MBO courses were launched in 1979 for former LBO and MAVO pupils who could make the transition to MBO or the apprenticeship system. The final level is similar to the primary level of the apprenticeship system. The short version of MBO also includes various orientation and bridging courses for pupils who have not yet chosen an occupation or who lack some of the knowledge needed for the successful completion of their vocational training.

Since 1980 the number of participants in MBO has risen sharply. In the 1988/89 school year almost 300 000 pupils were taking MBO courses, 25 000 the short variant. In addition, some 50 000 (working) adults are taking a part-time MBO course.

2.2.13.
The apprenticeship system is a form of vocational training in which the apprentices attend a school on one or two days of the week for vocational education and spend the rest of the week in practical training. It is, in other words, a form of dual or alternance education. The theoretical side is covered by a district school for day-release education, while the practical aspects are taught in a firm or training centre. The school is responsible for day-release education. Apprentices also have dealings with national and regional apprenticeship boards (see sections 2.4.11. and 2.4.12.).

The relationship between learning on the job and at school is governed by the Apprenticeship Act (Wet op het Leerlingwezen). The apprenticeship system comprises a maximum of three levels: primary training, which takes two to three years and leads to the status of 'novice' ('beginnend beroepsbeoefenaar'). This stage ends with an examination and the award of a certificate of proficiency. The second level ('volleerd vakman', fully qualified craftsman), secondary training, takes one to two years. It is then possible to take courses in management or specialist occupations. The apprenticeship system is open to young people and adults aged 16 and above with or without an LBO or MAVO certificate. It includes courses for occupations in the technical, service, health care, administrative and transport sectors.

2.2.14.
The last part of the second stage of secondary education is education for young adults, which includes socio-pedagogical activities for young people who are still required to attend an institute of education two days a week. The curricula are geared to helping these young people with their personal and social development. They are intended for people who are undergoing neither training under the apprenticeship system nor any other form of (full-time) education, but are still subject to the part-time compulsory education ruling.

Higher education

2.2.15.
There are two types of higher education:

- higher vocational education (HBO)[1]
- university education (WO).

Higher vocational education (HBO) consists of theoretical and practical preparation for an occupation for which a higher vocational training is necessary or useful. It follows on from the final level of HAVO, VWO and (four-year) MBO. The full-time variant is a four-year course. Courses can also be taken on a part-time basis.

HBO is subdivided into seven sectors:

- agriculture
- teacher training
- technology
- economics
- personal, social and cultural welfare
- health care
- art.

Since 1986 HBO has been governed by the Higher Vocational Education Act (Wet op het Hoger Beroepsonderwijs – WHBO), having previously been governed by the Secondary Education Act. The WHBO permits HBO institutions to conduct applied research for third parties, besides providing education.

Beginning in 1984, HBO underwent an operation known as 'scale expansion, subject specialization and concentration of disciplines', the aim of which was to raise the level of HBO from secondary to higher education. This operation led to the reduction of the number of HBO institutions from 348 colleges of higher vocational education in 1984 to 85 in 1988. Ninety percent of the institutions were involved in the mergers. Of the 85 colleges in existence today, the majority (51) are multi-sectoral. Only in agricultural education was the scale expansion process confined to the one sector.

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[1] See glossary, Annex 4.

The increase in the number of students in full-time HBO by over 30 % from 132 000 in 1980 to 180 000 in 1990 was less spectacular than in MBO, where the number of full-time students rose by over 70 %. In the same period the numbers in part-time HBO fell from almost 80 000 to around 55 000.

In the 1980s the demographic trend had little effect on participation in HBO: the number of 18 to 24-year-olds has remained more or less constant since 1984. In view of the growing number of students opting for forms of higher vocational education, it remains to be seen whether the expected decline in the number of participants in HBO due to the demographic trend begins in the early 1990s.

2.2.16.
An academic education can be obtained in the Netherlands at 14 universities, three of them technical. There are nine State, one municipal and three private universities. There is also an Open University (see para. 2.2.21.). All these universities are financed by central government.

In 1986 the new University Education Act (Wet op het Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs – WWO) entered into force. Besides providing education and carrying out research, the main tasks of universities include the transfer to society of knowledge acquired through academic study. A condition for admission to university education is a certificate of pre-university education (VWO) or higher vocational education (HBO).

In 1982 university education was restructured into a two-phase system. The first phase lasts four years and leads to the degree examination. The second phase, to which only limited numbers can be admitted, offers further academic training for researchers. Graduates of higher vocational education may also be admitted to this second phase in some cases.

The number of students enrolled in university education rose from 149 000 in 1980 to 166 000 in 1990.

Adult education

2.2.17.
Adult education covers a wide range of facilities and activities, geared to the education and training of adults from the age of 18. The aim of adult education is 'to promote the personal development and social aptitude of adults by improving their knowledge, perception, skills and attitudes in a manner appropriate to their needs, capacities and experience and to the needs of society'.

Adult education comprises:

- adult basic education
- general secondary adult education
- vocational education
- Open University courses.

2.2.18.
Adult basic education covers the activities that will enable adults to function in society: part-time courses in the fields of linguistic competence, numeracy and social skills being the most important components. Adult basic education also includes vocational orientation courses. The number of participants in adult basic education rose sharply from 44 000 in 1980 to almost 80 000 in 1989. This increase is expected to continue for the time being. The rules governing adult basic education are laid down in the Adult Education (general provisions) Act 1991.

2.2.19.
General secondary adult education (VAVO) is seen as giving adults a second chance in education. Unlike adult basic education, it is geared to formal qualifications, leading to the award of (subject) certificates in MAVO, HAVO or VWO. Bridging courses geared to vocationally oriented adult education can also be taken. Since 1980 the number of people taking VAVO courses has been about 100 000 each year; the figure is currently 120 000.

2.2.20.
Adult vocational education includes a wide range of training and education courses for job-seekers, working people and employers. Because of its close association with MBO and the apprenticeship system, it will be considered in greater depth in section 2.4.28.

Adult education is governed by the Vocational Education Courses Act (Wet op het Cursorisch Beroepsonderwijs), which also covers the apprenticeship system, part-time MBO and 'specialized training', a category comprising various types of training, such as courses outside the apprenticeship system, courses at centres for occupational orientation and training and vocational training centres and courses run by firms and private training institutes.

It is difficult to put a precise figure to the numbers involved. In 1988 the Central Bureau of Statistics recorded over 50 000 people taking part-time MBO courses and 150 000 in day-release education, part-time short MBO and education for young adults. Day-release education and part-time short MBO courses form the in-school part of the apprenticeship system.

2.2.21.
The last adult education institution for which the Ministry of Education and Science is responsible is the Open University. It has existed since 1984 as an independent State institution for higher distance learning for people aged 18 and above. It is primarily intended for people who are unable or unwilling to attend ordinary university courses or who want to study while working. The Open University's main aim is to make higher education accessible to adults. The minimum age of 18 is therefore the only admission requirement. In practice, the people taking Open University courses mostly have intermediate or higher educational qualifications and usually want to improve their career prospects.

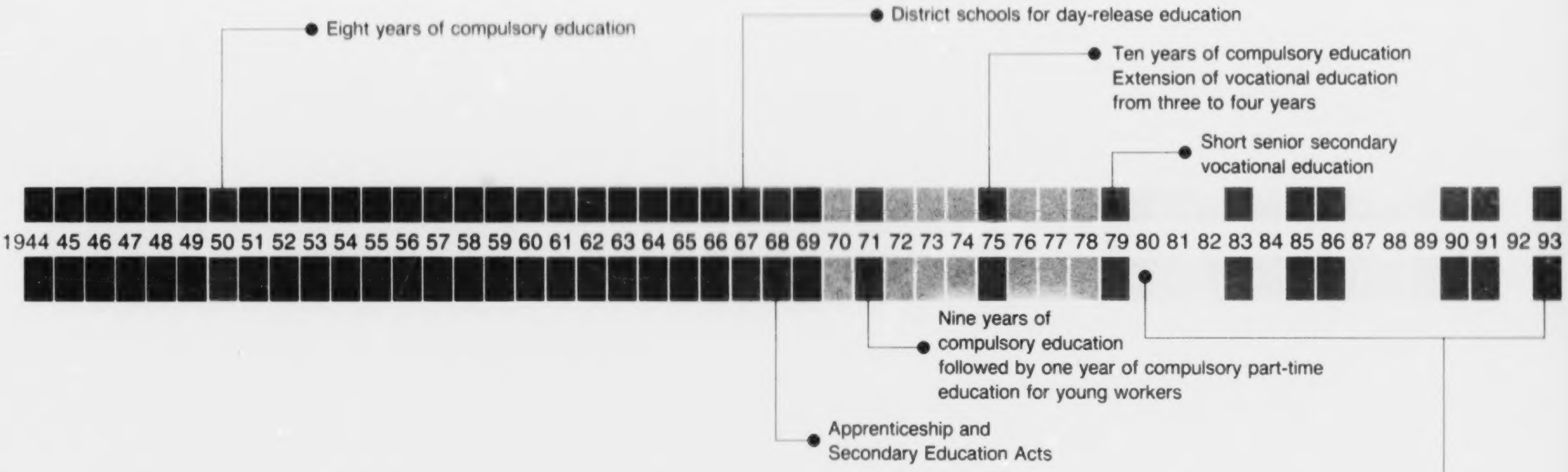
The Open University offers courses in law, the social sciences, cultural studies, economics, business management, public administration, technology and science. In 1989 the Open University had more than 40 000 students, over 17 000 of whom were newly enrolled. Almost half of these had enrolled for diploma courses. The remainder were taking individual courses or did not yet have a precise plan of study.

Since 1985 Open University education has been governed by a separate law, the Open University Act (Wet op de Open Universiteit).

2.2.22.
Adult education also includes various activities for which the Ministry of Education and Science is not responsible. The State contributory scheme for social and cultural work, for example, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural Affairs, which also subsidizes various other measures relevant to the field of adult education, such as social and cultural work at national level and residential education for young adults.

The Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment finances various training measures geared primarily to preparing job-seekers or people faced with redundancy for re-entry into the labour market. These measures are discussed at greater length in paras. 2.4.17. et seq.

Evolution of the vocational training system


1944 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93

● Eight years of compulsory education

● District schools for day-release education

● Ten years of compulsory education
Extension of vocational education
from three to four years

● Short senior secondary
vocational education

● Nine years of
compulsory education
followed by one year of compulsory part-time
education for young workers

● Apprenticeship and
Secondary Education Acts

1983	Report of the Wagner Commission
1985	Eleven years of compulsory education
1986	Higher Vocational Education Act
1990	Report of the Rauwenhoff Commission
1991	Adult Education (general provisions) Act
	Senior Secondary Vocational Education (formation of sectors and modernization) Act
	Manpower Services Act
	Secondary General Adult Education Act
1993	Vocational Education Courses Act
	Basic Education Act

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2.3 Vocational education: a brief history

2.3.1.
This section concentrates on vocational education. An insight into its historical development is needed if the present situation is to be understood. We therefore begin with a brief history.

The history of vocational education is divided into three periods. In the first, vocational education was established as a form of secondary education. This period ended in 1968 with the entry into force of the Secondary Education Act (Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs), which governs all secondary education. The second period – beginning in 1968 – featured the gradual expansion of senior secondary and higher vocational education. The third period, during which vocational education is becoming legally more independent, began in about 1990.

Towards the integration of vocational education into secondary education (1968)

2.3.2.
The Dutch Government was long reluctant to adopt legislation on vocational education. In the last century vocational education came about as a result of private initiative. The first technical school providing full-time education for working-class boys was founded in Amsterdam in 1861. Industry was not altogether pleased with this development because it preferred on-the-job training. Although the number of technical schools gradually increased (by 1921 there were 83 and also 51 'trade schools'), it proved impossible to set up such schools throughout the country offering a three-year course after primary education. Vocational education was also provided – on a supplementary basis – in on-the-job form (apprenticeships) and at night school. Domestic science courses for girls began at the first industrial school for young women in Amsterdam in 1865; by 1900 there were six schools of this type.

2.3.3.
Around 1900 the first senior secondary technical schools were founded; it was from them that higher technical education emerged after the Second World War.

2.3.4.
In 1902 the government set up a committee to put forward proposals for the reorganization of primary, senior secondary and higher education with a view to improving the links between the various parts of the education system. The committee rejected the distinction between general and vocationally oriented education and did not consider separate legislation on vocational education necessary. For practical reasons the latter proposal was not implemented. In 1919 Parliament passed the Technical Education Act (Nijverheids onderwijswet), which entered into force in 1921. This act also governed the apprenticeship system, which was regarded as an alternative to full-time vocational education. As a result of a restrictive policy on subsidies and the reduction of the duration of education at technical schools (from three to two years) during the crisis period (1935) vocational education never flourished, either in its full-time or apprenticeship form. The reduction in the length of technical education courses – which followed primary education – initially resulted in apprenticeships being regarded more as a follow-up to education at the technical schools.

2.3.5.

The numbers participating and the time spent in education have gradually increased in the 20th century. It was only after the Second World War that vocational education felt the full impact of this trend. The number of participants in technical education as a form of junior secondary vocational education rose to 400 000 in 1960, while the number of apprentices quadrupled from 18 000 in 1950 to 72 000 in 1965. In this period of economic reconstruction and industrial recovery (until 1960) senior secondary and higher vocational education (MBO and HBO) was still insignificant; it expanded and grew particularly after Parliament's approval of the Secondary Education Act (Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs) in 1963 and its entry into force in 1968.

2.3.6.

The rise in the numbers in (secondary) education led to a series of statutory measures concerning compulsory education. As a rule, the school-leaving age was raised at a time when legislation was passed on a situation that already existed.

In 1900 six years of education became compulsory. This was subsequently increased as follows:

1921	to seven years (age 6 to 13);
1950	to eight years (6 to 14);
1971	to nine years (6 to 15) and one year of compulsory part-time education for young people immediately after compulsory education;
1975	to 10 years (6 to 16), partly as a result of the extension of junior secondary vocational education (LBO) to four years in 1973;
1985	to 11 years (5 to 16 years old), by bringing forward the age at which compulsory education begins.

The Compulsory Education Act (Leerplichtwet) is complemented by labour legislation. Those governed by the Act may not work; 16-year-olds must attend school one day each week. Part-time compulsory education was introduced as a result not of any increase in participation in education but of pressure from trade unions and young workers' organizations. They referred to provisions of labour legislation that provided for workers to attend vocational education or other courses for up to eight hours a week, but which had not been enforced.

2.3.7.

The rising numbers in secondary education also underlined the need for closer links among the various forms of secondary education. This led to the passing of the Secondary Education Act in 1968 (see also Section 2.2). This act was extended to cover vocational education at the junior and senior secondary and higher levels in the late 1960s. The apprenticeship system was governed by a separate act, which was passed in 1966 and entered into force in 1968.

The development of secondary education, including vocational education, which culminated in the 'Mammoth Act' (the Secondary Education Act) was partly the outcome of a dispute between social groups (Catholic and Social-Democratic parliamentarians), but during the growth phase it was increasingly due to the way in which parents and pupils took advantage of the available education opportunities. Quantitative growth in education led to attempts to transform the negative hierarchy of educational levels (social stereotyping in education) into a positive hierarchy (transfers from one type of education to another). The Secondary Education Act (WVO) reflects the view that general education and vocationally oriented education must be regarded as complementing each other and allow for vertical and horizontal transfers.

Expansion of vocational education after 1968

2.3.8.

Vocational education has again been expanding since the latter half of the 1960s; this has particularly benefited senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and higher vocational education (HBO), which have gradually absorbed more girls. The numbers in junior secondary vocational education (LBO) have fallen since 1970, as parents and pupils have increasingly opted for general secondary education after primary education. This shift among 13 and 14-year-olds from LBO to general secondary education (AVO) is shown in the following table. The figures in the table concern the second year of education in 1970 and 1975 and the third year in 1980, 1985 and 1989; in other words, they concern pupils who have completed the transitional class (see Section 2.1.).

Participants in the second/third year of LBO and MAVO/HAVO/VWO

	1970	**1975**	**1980**	**1985**	**1989**
A. in %					
Boys:					
MAVO/HAVO/VWO	52.9	58.4	54.8	55.6	60.0
LBO	47.1	41.6	45.2	44.2	40.0
Girls:					
MAVO/HAVO/VWO	58.4	64.6	66.8	69.0	71.9
LBO	41.6	35.4	33.2	31.0	28.1
Total:					
MAVO/HAVO/VWO	55.5	61.4	60.6	62.1	65.7
LBO	44.5	38.6	39.4	37.9	34.3
B. in absolute terms					
MAVO/HAVO/VWO	132 302	168 087	165 996	163 919	137 103
LBO	106 226	105 687	108 032	100 189	71 433

Source: Ministry of Education and Science, April 1991; report to OECD.

It is clear from these figures that the decline in the number of girls in LBO has been gradual, while the downward trend in the number of boys has been more erratic. From 1970 to 1975 (effect of the 1968 WVO; raising of the school-leaving age) and after 1985 (rapid decline in the number of pupils in absolute terms; effect of the economic recession) we see this shift occurring among boys.

Developments in senior secondary vocational education (MBO), the apprenticeship system and higher vocational education (HBO) – initial forms of vocational education – are considered at greater length in Section 2.4.

2.3.9.
After 1968 the following occurred in various forms of vocational education within secondary education:

- In content junior secondary vocational education (LBO) increasingly came to resemble general secondary education. It changed from training pupils for an occupation to being pre-vocational. When the uniform basic curriculum is introduced for 12 to 15-year-olds in the 1990s, the final stage of LBO will be transformed into preparatory vocational education. With more pupils opting for general secondary education and with the relative and absolute growth of individualized vocational education (the lowest level of LBO), junior secondary vocational education (LBO) is increasingly becoming a residual form of education. This development coincides with a major influx of children of foreign workers, most of whom are in LBO. Some LBO schools in Dutch cities can be called 'black schools'.

- Senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and the apprenticeship system are becoming the appropriate forms of education and training for skilled workers at executive and middle-management level.

- Higher vocational education (HBO), an applied form of higher education, is gradually severing its ties with secondary education. The result is to be seen in the 1986 Higher Vocational Education Act (Wet op het Hoger Beroepsonderwijs). The idea put forward in the 1970s of forging closer links between higher vocational education and university education has had little effect in practice. In the 1980s it was decided to place greater emphasis on the distinctive features of HBO.

2.3.10.
The new era, to which it is generally difficult to put a starting date, is characterized by:

- a gradual separation of vocational education from secondary education and
- a closer association between vocational education and the labour market.

Thus in 1986 HBO became a separate entity under the legislation referred to above. In 1991 the legislation both on senior secondary vocational education and on general and vocationally oriented adult education was completed. It has already been announced that this will be followed in 1996 by legislation governing both senior secondary vocational education and day-release vocational education, as distinct from the secondary education that is governed by the Secondary Education Act.

Since the early 1980s the two sides of industry have been more involved in education and training, as they had long been in the case of the apprenticeship system. This should eventually result in government, the two sides of industry, vocational education institutions and the public assuming joint responsibility for a system of 'life-long learning', whereby everyone wanting to enter the labour market will obtain a minimum initial qualification. This is the key element of a report (by the Rauwenhoff Commission) published in 1990, which has been broadly approved by the government (see also Section 4).

2.4. Initial vocational education

Vocational education is currently undergoing a process of restructuring and modernization. This is particularly true of initial vocational education, which forms part of the second stage of secondary education. In general, it can be said that the aim of government policy is to provide an integrated range of education for young people and adults, with senior secondary vocational education (MBO), the apprenticeship system and the training of job-seekers forming part of a cohesive and flexible system of vocational training.

This section consists of five sub-sections:

1. senior secondary vocational education (MBO)	(paras. 2.4.1. to 2.4.7.)
2. the apprenticeship system	(paras. 2.4.8. to 2.4.16.)
3. training for job-seekers	(paras. 2.4.17. to 2.4.26.)
4. the relationship between MBO, the apprenticeship system and training for job-seekers	(paras. 2.4.28. to 2.4.36.)
5. initial higher vocational education	(paras. 2.4.37. to 2.4.39.)

Senior secondary vocational education (MBO)

2.4.1.
Senior secondary vocational education (MBO) prepares students for middle-management posts in industry, the services sector and government. It is open to pupils with an LBO c/d-level or MAVO certificate or a comparable level of training.

The growing specialization of occupations and the considerable expansion of the services sector have led to a sharp rise in the number of middle-management posts in the last 20 years. Combined with increasing demand for education among LBO and MAVO school-leavers, this has led to the sharp growth of MBO.

When the Secondary Education Act entered into force in 1968, there were seven types of MBO:

- senior secondary technical education (MTO);
- senior secondary home economics education (MHNO);
- senior secondary social work education (MSPO);
- senior secondary tradespeople's education (MMO);
- senior secondary commercial education (MEAO);
- senior secondary nautical education (MNO);
- senior secondary agricultural education (MAO).

MBO also includes a few vocational schools. In 1984 MHNO and MSPO were combined to form senior secondary personal and social services and health care education (MDGO).

2.4.2.
As already indicated, MBO is a major growth sector in secondary education. However, it is also faced with high drop-out rates of about 40 % per annum. Added to this, it has been increasingly accused in recent years of being too slow to react to (technological and substantive) developments and their implications for working life. The lack of flexibility and the fragmentation of the range of

courses offered have also been criticized. As regards infrastructure, MBO was being taught in 1986 at 391 educational establishments, which, though differing widely in nature and numbers of pupils, mostly provided only one type of MBO. This greatly restricted the sharing of expertise, equipment and opportunities for study. The small size of many MBO institutions also made it difficult and expensive to keep equipment and facilities up to date.

2.4.3.
The rules on MBO in the Secondary Education Act, which features very detailed implementing provisions, made it extremely difficult to change MBO.

In 1986 it was therefore decided to undertake a thorough reform of MBO, the government's main aim being to make it more vocationally oriented. The two sides of industry and the business community will therefore be more heavily involved in updating the content of the education provided, and the educational establishments will be allowed far more scope to decide policy on content, finance and staff. Larger independent establishments are expected to be better able to solve the problems relating to content.

2.4.4.
In 1987 the sectoral restructuring and modernization process in MBO (SVM) was launched. It consists of two phases. The first concerned sectoral restructuring. The original aim had been to combine short MBO and MBO courses in each sector to form larger institutions, but as time passed, problems were encountered with sectoral mergers in many regions. With the compulsory introduction of orientation and bridging services and such new developments as contract work for the private sector, a multi-sectoral MBO institute was thought in many cases to be better equipped to cope with future tasks.

Sectoral restructuring is subject to two mandatory rules:

- It is predicted that all MBO schools will have to have at least 600 pupils in 1994. Exceptions can be made in the case of smaller vocational schools.
- After the sectoral restructuring there must be no separate institutions for short MBO. Schools providing long MBO are required to cater for the short variant in their region.

The sectoral restructuring was completed in 1991. Three hundred and eighty-two old MBO schools and short MBO pilot projects were converted into some 140 new-style MBO colleges, many of which are multi-sectoral. Not only (full-time) short MBO and (full-time) MBO schools have been absorbed into these MBO colleges: in 52 cases the merger involved a day-release or part-time MBO establishment.

Only in agricultural education did the SVM process assume a sectoral form. Agricultural education, which is the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Nature Management, went its own way and merged MBO, short MBO and junior secondary agricultural education to give some 25 agricultural training centres.

2.4.5.
The new MBO comprises four training sectors:

- technical education (technical, laboratory and nautical education);
- personal and social services and health care (nine categories);
- commercial education (including tourism and recreation);
- agricultural education.

Each MBO school includes at least one of these sectors. The sectors are subdivided into sections, in which a further distinction is made between certain types of course:

- **Long courses:** the present three and four year sections. They follow a MAVO or LBO course (at least three subjects at level C) and the lower classes of HAVO. Pupils who have successfully completed an intermediate course (see below), the short MBO or an orientation or bridging programme may also transfer to a long course. Long courses prepare students for middle-management posts (EC level IV).

- **Intermediate courses** follow MAVO or LBO completed in at least three subjects at level B. They prepare students for self-employed occupations (EC level III). For the time being, intermediate courses are seen as experimental and are confined to three subject areas: electrical engineering, mechanical engineering and catering.

- **Short courses** follow LBO and MAVO, with no further requirements as regards the level reached. They train students to the level of trainee worker (EC level II).

MBO also includes orientation and bridging programmes (lasting a maximum of one year). These courses are intended to help pupils choose an occupation (or training course) and enable them to transfer to long or intermediate courses. The theoretical variant that was originally to have been included in MBO (the transfer variant) is not being introduced, and pre-higher vocational education, a form of MBO that prepares pupils specifically for HBO, is to be discontinued. Pupils transfer to HBO via the long MBO courses, which thus perform a dual function: a means of transferring to HBO and a form of vocational education that leads to the award of a final certificate. Transfers may be made within the same sector: from MTO to HTO, from MEAO to HEAO, etc.

2.4.6.
All MBO schools provide general and vocationally oriented education. The practical element of most courses consists of periods of on-the-job training. For each national MBO qualification structure and the apprenticeship system the Minister for Education and Science sets attainment targets. An attainment target is a functional description of the level of education in terms of knowledge, understanding, skills and occupational attitudes with which a school must seek to provide each pupil through its teaching activities. For the new MBO the tables showing the minimum number of hours to be spent on each subject have been dropped. MBO colleges are thus able to adopt their own timetables, although they must abide by the attainment targets set at national level. In the case of MBO these targets are set by a sectoral consultative body in which organiza-

tions representing the business community and the education system cooperate. The attainment targets are defined in vocational training profiles, which are based on occupation profiles. The Minister ultimately sets the attainment targets after consulting the sectoral consultative body.

Each year MBO colleges describe and account for the education they provide in a school work plan. It sets an examination syllabus for each section and arranges the final examinations.

2.4.7.
MBO colleges must be free to decide how they use their budgets if they are to be more independent. The new method of financing MBO is based on a contribution from the state, which colleges may use as they see fit. This block grant covers the cost of both staff and equipment and may be moved freely between the two heads.

The financing of MBO thus differs from that of the rest of secondary education, which will receive a block grant only to cover equipment. The Financing Act (Bekostigingswet) requires educational establishments to submit accounts and to justify them, to maintain buildings and to keep inventories. In anticipation of the new method of financing secondary education (see Section 3.2), the old financing structure permitted contract work to be carried out for third parties. The establishment may retain the income from such work (teaching, research, etc.). The Act has been amended to permit the staff of educational establishments to undertake contract work under their normal terms of employment.

The apprenticeship system

2.4.8.
The apprenticeship system is a dual form of vocational training. For part of the week apprentices are employees in a firm, and on one or two days they continue their education at a district school. It is this combination of practice and theory that forms the essence of training under the apprenticeship system. The object of this system is to produce qualified people for the various sectors of industry and segments of the labour market.

2.4.9.
Until the 1950s the apprenticeship system played a minor role in the Netherlands; it was regarded as an alternative to full-time vocational education. While the numbers undergoing full-time vocational education increased, the apprenticeship system gradually waned in importance. This changed during the 1950s, the period of reconstruction in the Netherlands. If industrial activity was to increase, well-trained people would be needed. However, the requirements that large and small-scale industry expected adults to meet varied enormously. Consequently, full-time education and education at a lower level too increasingly came to focus on vocational preparation. This deferral of vocational training to a later stage in the educational careers of young people was also due to the belief that education is not only a means of acquiring vocational knowledge and skills, but is also important for the development of the person as a whole, who has a contribution to make to the development of society.

With the appearance of the 'Policy document on the industrialization of the Netherlands' in 1949, the economic foundations were laid for the further expansion of the apprenticeship system: it was seen in the policy document as forming the basis of vocational training proper. The independence of the apprenticeship system resulted in legislation being passed in the late 1960s: the Apprenticeship Act (Wet op het Leerlingwezen).

The structure of the apprenticeship system

2.4.10.

The structural relationship between practical training and learning at school is governed by the Apprenticeship Act. This act places the emphasis on the apprenticeship agreement between the apprentice, the firm training him and the national training board. The agreement stipulates that training in the firm consists of performing occupational tasks. In practice, this means that, apart from being an apprentice, the person concerned also has employee status; in other words, the rights and obligations defined in the employment contract as well as the provisions of the apprenticeship agreement apply.

How the practical training is organized is left to the employer. He is required to train the apprentice-employee in the firm in the occupation concerned. The firm appoints an instructor to ensure that the apprentice-employee carries out the practical assignments and tasks listed in the practical work book. Assistance in this respect can be obtained from the national board's adviser. The firm enables the apprentice-employee to attend supplementary day-release education, two thirds of which is devoted to vocational theory, the remainder to general subjects.

The apprenticeship system is open to anyone aged 16 or older, i.e. to both young people and adults. It provides (further) training for skilled workers, people with no qualifications and early school-leavers. It offers courses in a wide range of sectors, including technology, personal and social services and health care, welfare, administration, transport and catering. Participants are trained at various levels: specialist courses and courses for the self-employed, training to the level of fully qualified craftsman/woman or journeyman/woman. In recent years various bridging programmes have been developed to enable those with insufficient previous training to participate in the apprenticeship system. These programmes are intended particularly for migrants, the long-term unemployed and women returners.

As the apprenticeship system is sensitive to economic fluctuations, there is a shortage of suitable practical training places in some sectors. To overcome this problem, variants of practical training are used: rotation among different firms, joint training activities, simulation of practical situations and off-the-job training.

National apprenticeship boards

2.4.11.
Each sector has a national board; there are 31 of these boards at present. The governing body of each national board consists of representatives of employers' and employees' organizations and of the education system. Until recently the apprenticeship system was the only type of training in which the role of the two sides of industry was enshrined in law. Now their responsibility for vocational education is being increased significantly. Employers are being urged to provide practical training places; the two sides of industry are also responsible for setting MBO attainment targets.

The most important tasks of the national boards are:

- to promote all aspects of the apprenticeship system;
- to ensure the establishment of national curricula, which prescribe the content of training in schools and firms. There are about 400 of these curricula;
- to prepare and hold examinations;
- to mediate in the conclusion of apprenticeship agreements;
- to ensure compliance with the provisions of apprenticeship agreements;
- to assist apprentice-employees. The national boards employ advisers for this purpose.

The apprentice-employee thus has direct contact with school teachers, the firm's instructor and the national board's adviser.

The 31 national boards are responsible for training in a wide variety of occupations. The boards differ widely. Some have fewer than 100 participants, others a few thousand, the largest over 12 000. Despite this, they have much in common: the training activities of each relate to one sector; the two sides of industry (and the schools) are therefore equally represented on the management bodies. The functions of the national boards are performed by various departments:

- research and development,
- PR and information,
- examinations,
- control of the quality of practical training.

Most also perform other tasks for their sector, such as continuing training.

Of the 31 national boards, 28 are financed by the Ministry of Education and Science and three by the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries. The number of apprenticeship agreements concluded is a key criterion for financing. In an approach similar to that of the development of economies of scale in education, there are also advanced plans to reduce the 28 national boards financed by the Ministry of Education and Science to 12 national expertise centres.

All 31 national boards are represented in one umbrella organization, the Centraal Orgaan van Landelijke Opleidingsorganen (Central Office of the National Industrial Training Organizations – COLO). COLO mainly performs three functions on behalf of the national boards:

- it promotes their common interests,
- it provides services,
- it acts as a platform for coordination and consultation.

Regional apprenticeship boards

2.4.12.
A fourth person with whom the apprentice-employee may have contact is the regional adviser. The regional boards' tasks are

- to provide information on the apprenticeship system;
- to help with and advise on the drawing up of apprenticeship agreements;
- to help the apprentice with any social and educational problems.

Quantitative trends in the apprenticeship system

2.4.13.
The apprenticeship system is sensitive to economic fluctuations, since training is possible only if there are jobs for the apprentice-employees.

The number of apprentices rose sharply from fewer than 20 000 in 1950 to more than 70 000 in the mid-1960s, after which it fell slightly. From 1965 to 1975 it remained almost constant. It reached its lowest point in 1975, when there were fewer than 45 000 apprentices. In that year a large proportion of the participants in the system, about 40 %, did not have apprenticeship agreements; they attended only the (theoretical) day-release courses. This sharp drop was due to the extension of junior secondary vocational education (LBO) as a whole from three to four years in 1975, which resulted in there being virtually no new enrolments in the apprenticeship system that year. From 1976 to 1981 the numbers rose again to around 74 000, partly as a result of the measures taken by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment to promote the apprenticeship system.

Because of the economic recession in the early 1980s the number of apprentice-employees fell by over 20 %.

2.4.14.
In the mid-1980s considerable political attention was focused on the apprenticeship system. Partly as a result of the Wagner Commission's report on the policy for industrial recovery (1983), the apprenticeship system, backed by subsidies for undertakings willing to employ apprentices, was seen as an infrastructure instrument that would contribute through training to a policy of economic recovery and to the fight against excessive unemployment. From 1983 to 1988 the annual intake consequently rose from 26 000 to over 52 000. In 1989 some 136 000 apprentices with apprenticeship agreements were enrolled, almost 94 000 for elementary training.

Demographic trends may lead to a decline in this figure. However, the apprenticeship system is absorbing growing numbers of adults aged 27 or more, since under the education and job creation policy the apprenticeship system is to perform the functions of retraining, further training and upgrading training as well as its original functions of elementary and advanced training.

Number of participants with agreements in the apprenticeship system, 1971–89

	Elementary	**Advanced**	**Total**
1971	60 569	11 996	72 565
1975	35 803	8 802	44 605
1980	64 035	14 661	79 073
1985	58 338	17 000	75 338
1989	93 629	42 680	136 309

Source: Hövels, B. and J. Geurts, *Het kort-MBO tussen aanbod en vraag* CORO-statistische jaargegevens 1985, 1989.

An examination of various specific features of apprentices reveals the following trends in the apprenticeship system from 1985 to 1990:

- the participation of women in technical training increased; particularly for the construction and processing industries;
- the percentage of participants previously having undergone LBO fell; the percentage of participants previously in MAVO remained almost constant; the percentage of participants previously in MAVO or HAVO rose;
- the average age of participants rose, mainly because of increased participation by people aged 27 and older.

Qualitative trends in the apprenticeship system

2.4.15.

A number of developments are very important for the future of the apprenticeship system.

- Vocational training within the apprenticeship system should be more closely geared to (continuously) changing work practices. Training packages are formed or adapted on the basis of the development of occupation profiles and vocational training profiles. Continually updated occupation profiles are essential for this purpose.
- An important question is how narrow or broad training within the apprenticeship system should be. As there is no clear tendency towards specialization or generalization in the development of posts and occupations, this continues to be difficult.

At the moment the apprenticeship system follows a pattern (from which departures are possible) that consist of three stages:

1. Elementary training, in which participants are trained for two to three years to the level of trainee worker (EC level II). This is also known as the 'starting qualification' level.
2. Advanced training goes into the subject matter more deeply and leads to the level of skilled worker (EC level III). This stage takes about one year.
3. The last stage of the vocational training package is intended to take participants from the level of a skilled worker acting independently to middle-management or specialized occupations. This stage takes about one year.

- As we have already mentioned, various attempts are being made to reduce the sensitivity of the apprenticeship system to economic fluctuations, the availability of jobs being the main factor. On the one hand, incentives are offered to employers to take on apprentice-employees. On the other hand, experiments are being conducted with various alternative practical training places to enable both young people and adults to be trained.

- If it is to be possible both to change whole or parts of training packages quickly and to have an accessible range of training opportunities for different groups of participants (not only LBO and MAVO school-leavers, but also MBO school-leavers, job-seekers, non-indigenous people and women returners), training needs to be structured in self-contained modules. This requirement is particularly evident from the following factors:

  - As the influx from preparatory vocational education is shrinking fast, the apprenticeship system must be made more accessible to other categories of participants; very careful attention is being paid in the modernization of the apprenticeship system to the link with elementary vocationally oriented adult education (see para. 2.4.23. et seq.).

  - It must be possible to transfer, both horizontally and vertically, to other forms of vocational and adult education.

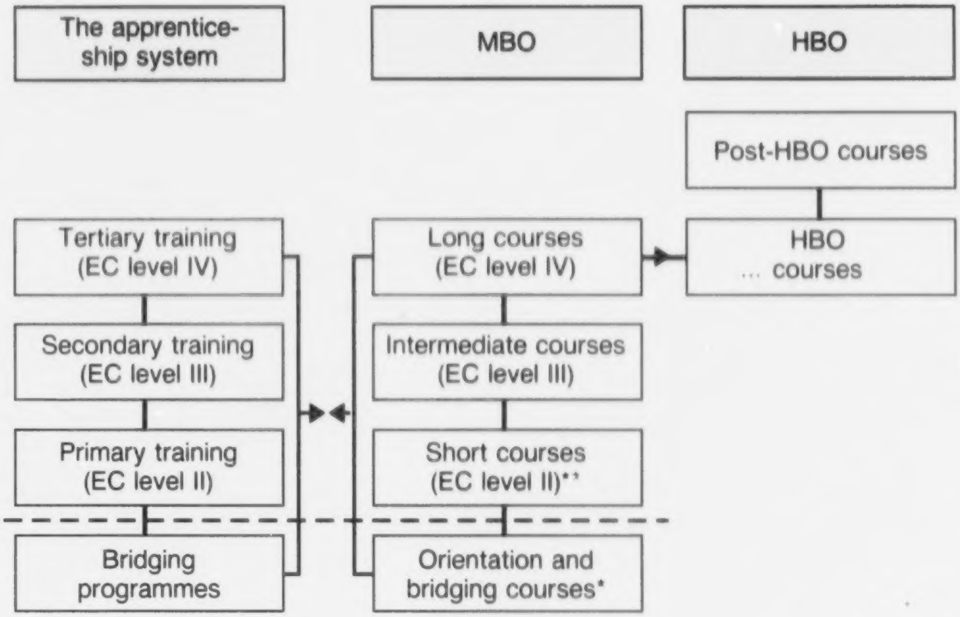
  - Training must be divided into appropriate units (modules) to give participants the opportunity of taking shorter training courses independently and at their own speed, with guaranteed access to a broad spectrum of qualifications. Modules also make it easier to cater for the differences that exist even within a single occupation. The creation of modules has been and is being initiated and carried out by the national boards.

  - Part-qualifications within a broad spectrum of qualifications will help to reduce the numbers currently leaving without any qualifications and thus to improve efficiency.

- Finally, a major legislative programme covering full-time vocational education at junior and secondary senior levels, part-time courses, the apprenticeship system, adult education and the job-creation scheme was launched in the Netherlands in the late 1980s. A legislative programme was (provisionally) completed at the end of 1991 and is due to expire on 1 January 1996.

2.4.16.
A variant of the initial vocational education described above is the in-service education for nursing and the caring occupations. The participants in this training, which is formally the responsibility of the Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural Affairs, are employed by health-care institutions. The training is financed from the budget for hospitals and institutions. Participants are trained in one of the various aspects of health care: general nursing, care of the mentally handicapped, psychiatry and care of the sick. How long the training lasts depends on the subject taken. Learning and work are combined on the basis of a training-employment agreement with the hospital or the institution. In six regional experiments attempts are currently being made to forge a closer link between this type of education and health-care education at MBO and HBO level.

The structure of vocational education in the Netherlands


The apprenticeship system
MBO
HBO
Post-HBO courses
Tertiary training (EC level IV)
Long courses (EC level IV)
HBO ... courses
Secondary training (EC level III)
Intermediate courses (EC level III)
Primary training (EC level II)
Short courses (EC level II)**
Bridging programmes
Orientation and bridging courses*

Notes:
1. The Dutch vocational education and training system has two main routes, MBO and apprenticeship.
2. These two are closely interrelated and participants have the possibility to change from one to the other (i. e. from a theoretically oriented to a pracitcally oriented one, or vice versa).
3. For a small group of MBO students, it is possible to continue into Higher Vocational Education (HBO). This is not so for those in the apprenticeship system.

Training for job-seekers

2.4.17.
In the near future training for job-seekers will be closely linked to senior secondary vocational training (MBO) and the apprenticeship system in terms of both content and organization. Many of these training activities are closely associated with developments in the apprenticeship system. As we have already indicated, the apprenticeship system has opened its training programmes to job-seekers.

2.4.18.
The training of job-seekers is the responsibility of the Central Manpower Service Board (Centraal Bestuur voor de Arbeidsvoorziening), which forms part of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. With the introduction of the Manpower Services Act (Wet op de Arbeidsvoorziening) in 1991, measures to promote employment became a joint administrative responsibility of government and employers' and employees' organizations in the Central Manpower Service Board (CBA). This body establishes a national multiannual policy framework, which acts as a guide for the policy plans drawn up by the 28 Regional Manpower Service Boards (Regionale Besturen voor de Arbeidsvoorziening), the governing bodies of which are similarly tripartite. Each RBA determines the number of job-seekers to be trained and decides what training instruments to use for this purpose. For training activities the RBAs mainly use the vocational training centres and centres for occupational orientation and training. However, this training capacity cannot cope with the demand. The RBAs therefore use external providers to meet some of the demand for training. In addition to private training institutes, they can also turn to the vocational education system for this purpose. Important considerations in the government decision to have the vocational education system undertake training for the RBAs are the following:

- The economic recovery and the growth of employment make it necessary to increase the training opportunities for job-seekers and employees. The vocational schools can greatly increase the number of training places.

- The demographic trend is causing the number of pupils in vocational education to fall. To enable optimum use to be made of the resulting spare capacities, in terms of both staff and premises, the vocational education system will be used to meet the manpower service agencies' demand for training services.

2.4.19.
The most important training instruments for job-seekers include:

1. vocational training centres (CVs),
2. centres for occupational orientation and training (CBBs),
3. training schools for women,
4. elementary vocationally oriented education for adults (PBVE),
5. the apprentice training grant scheme (BVL).

The instruments referred to under 1, 2 and 3 are training institutes, while 4 and 5 are measures that can be used for the training of job-seekers.

2.4.20.

Vocational training centres (Centra voor Vakopleiding – CVs) offer technical and commercial courses, mainly for job-seekers. At present, there are 21 technical and 11 commercial vocational training centres. Most of the courses are short, lasting an average of about seven months. The highly practical courses are very similar, especially on the technical side, to training in the apprenticeship system. The vocational training centres are designed for a maximum capacity of 7 900 places, the number of participants each year thus being 20 000. The CVs are the responsibility of the RBAs.

2.4.21.

The **centres for occupational orientation and training** (Centra voor Beroepsoriëntatie – CBBs) are intended for groups whose position in the labour market is particularly weak. Their aim is to adapt participants to the needs of the labour market or to place them in courses for this purpose. Until 1995 the maximum capacity of the 28 CBBs has been set at 3 275 training places. They are the responsibility of the municipalities.

2.4.22.

The **training schools for women** (Vrouwenvakscholen) are primarily an initiative of the Women's Federation, which is a member of the largest confederation of trade unions in the Netherlands. They are intended for poorly educated women aged 25 and above who have not yet been employed or want to go back to work after an interruption. The courses are relevant to the labour market and geared to the target group: they are part-time, and the timetable is designed for women with children of school age. The courses, mostly in information technology, last no more than one to two years. The nine schools offer a training for almost 1 000 women a year. Six of these schools are wholly financed by the Regional Employment Promotion Boards. The other three are partly financed by the municipalities in which they are located. The European Social Fund also makes a contribution to the budget of the training schools for women.

These schools are highly effective: the drop-out rate is only 10 %, the success rate 90 %, and an average of 70 % to 80 % either find a job or go on to further training. The proportion of non-indigenous women is fairly high, averaging 22 %. Since 1987 the aim has been to integrate training for women into ordinary training and educational establishments. This policy will be stepped up in the period up to 1994.

2.4.23.
Elementary vocationally oriented education for adults (Primair Beroepsgerichte Volwasseneneducatie – PBVE) – PBVE is not a training institute but a coordinating measure, its most important objective being to ensure that a coherent and flexible range of training relevant to the labour market is available for large groups of adults, among the important target groups being job-seekers, women returners and non-indigenous people. In forming training packages (which may consist of guidance, transition and qualifying components), use is made of such existing educational facilities as the apprenticeship system, general secondary education for adults, the centres for occupational orientation and training (see para. 2.4.21.) and the vocational training centres (see para. 2.4.20.). PBVE can be described as a measure in which target group policy and labour market policy form, as it were, an extension of each other. Its main aim is to strengthen the position of weaker target groups in the labour market.

2.4.24.
The target groups find the scheme very attractive: about a third of the participants are non-indigenous, two thirds are women and more than a third have previous training to a level lower than a completed MAVO or LBO course. A study of the effectiveness of PBVE showed that almost 60% of participants had found a job within a year of completing a PBVE training package.
This scheme is financed by the Ministry of Education and Science and the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. Financing is based on days of training provided. The funds are paid as a lump sum to PBVE coordination centres, which run the scheme. An agreement between the two ministries stipulates that, subject to interim evaluations, the scheme will continue until 1 January 1994 with a national volume of 15 000 full-time equivalents (FTEs).

2.4.25.
The **apprentice training grant scheme** (Bijdrageregeling Vakopleiding Leerlingwezen – BVL) – Finally, there are a few measures primarily intended to promote the integration of job-seekers into the labour market. In 1990 the young persons training grant scheme was changed to the apprentice training grant scheme (BVL), which is the responsibility of the Manpower Services Organization. The aim of the scheme is to avert the danger of a shortage of candidates for the apprenticeship system. This was one reason for abandoning the age limit of 27 years in 1990. The subsidy is paid to sectoral training funds on the basis of training plans drawn up by the funds, which then pass the money on to employers who provide training places under the apprenticeship system. The subsidy can also be paid to a group of firms which take it in turns to provide practical training; this variant is known as a joint training activity (Gemeenschappelijke Opleidingsactiviteit – GOA). The GOA concept is primarily intended as an alternative form of practical training for young and adult job-seekers. The training funds are administered by employers' and employees' organizations.

Under the BVL three types of contribution are possible:

- a basic contribution,
- an additional contribution for joint training activities,
- an additional contribution for encouraging specific target groups to participate (non-indigenous people, women).

In 1990 more than 45 000 people benefited from the BVL. In a rational approach to the employment policy the future of the BVL is being reconsidered: it is not a permanent scheme. The government's main concern is to ensure that the employers continue to take prime responsibility for maintaining a high quality of training under the apprenticeship system and the number of participants at a high level.

2.4.26.

The BVL is supplemented by the sectoral training grant scheme (Bijdrageregeling Bedrijfstakgewijze Scholing – BBS), which benefits initiatives launched by sectors of industry to train unemployed job-seekers. The training plans must be drawn up under the joint responsibility of employers' and employees' organizations representing at national level the sector to which the plan relates. The focus is on small and medium-sized firms because of their relatively greater need for training and the favourable employment prospects they offer.

The scheme reimburses all training costs considered reasonable up to HFL 10 000. In 1990 5 500 people benefited from the BBS.

2.4.27.

With the launching of the new manpower services organization with its tripartite management board and the completion of new legislation on education, the training policy is in transition: training is governed by the Manpower Services Act (Arbeidsvoorzieningswet), the Adult Education (General Provisions) Act (Kaderwet Volwasseneneducatie) and the Vocational Education Courses Act (Wet op het Cursorisch Beroepsonderwijs).

The future general policy outlines for training are currently being formulated. For the Manpower Services Organization's training instruments (and measures) this means that the position of the vocational training centres, the centres for occupational orientation and training and the training schools for women will be reviewed. The key question is whether these training institutes are to remain the responsibility of the Manpower Services Organization, become independent or cooperate administratively and/or institutionally with the education infrastructure.

The relationship between MBO, the apprenticeship system and training for job-seekers

2.4.28.
Major developments are affecting MBO, the apprenticeship system and training for job-seekers in terms both of intake, especially from the first stage of secondary education, and of success rates. The legislation is geared to strengthening the links between these three types of training.

2.4.29.
MBO and the apprenticeship system have long recruited their participants from the first stage of secondary education and especially from LBO and MAVO. However, developments in the first stage of secondary education are having a marked effect on the numbers entering the second stage:

- a dwindling intake from primary education due to the demographic trend,
- growing interest in higher general forms of post-primary education,
- mounting problems with success rates.

The decline in the birth rate caused the number of pupils in LBO to fall by 37 % from 1980 to 1990 and the number in general education by 17 % in the same period. The numbers are expected to settle in 1993 at 75 % of the 1986 level.

In the first stage of secondary education more young people are opting for general education (AVO) at the expense of junior secondary vocational education. In general education interest in MAVO is waning, while the numbers opting for pre-university education have grown. In other words, pupils are increasingly choosing higher forms of post-primary education.

In the choice of further training there has been a tendency since 1980 for progressively fewer young people to leave education immediately after obtaining their MAVO, HAVO or VWO certificates. MAVO graduates increasingly opt for further training in MBO. Just under 20 % go on to the fourth year of HAVO. For only a very small number of pupils does MAVO mark the end of their educational career.

It is noticeable that a growing number of HAVO graduates are opting for a lower form of further training than their previous education intended them for: this mainly benefits MBO. A declining number of LBO graduates opt for training under the apprenticeship system, choosing MBO instead.

Many boys (around 60 %) continue to opt for training under the apprenticeship system after obtaining their LBO certificates, while girls are relatively more inclined to choose MBO (for the figures see the table in para. 2.2.10.).

2.4.30.
In the first stage of secondary education, which broadly corresponds to education for 12 to 16-year-olds, maintaining success rates at a high level is posing major problems. It is difficult to define exactly what is meant by success rate. Two key terms in this connection are effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness is a measure of how successfully education achieves its aims.

The effectiveness of education is often determined by reference to such internal criteria as the percentage of school-leavers who have obtained certificates. At least as important, however, is the extent to which school-leavers manage to find appropriate employment. This is only partly determined by their previous education; far more important is the current supply and demand situation in the labour market. Certain groups may be 'encouraged' to leave school prematurely if paid employment is available.

Little detailed information is available on success rates. The following are a few key data.

- In the first stage of secondary education the factors that do most to lower success rates are:
  - the drop-out rate,
  - the growth of special secondary education and individualized junior secondary vocational education,
  - the longer period spent in education.
- The level at which pupils leave the first stage of secondary education does not always give them access to further training in MBO or the apprenticeship system.
- The growth of special secondary education and individualized junior secondary vocational education contrasts starkly with the decline in the number of young people in the relevant age group. Besides falling numbers of school-leavers, the labour market will therefore have to cope with a relatively high proportion of poorly trained young people in the future.
- The time spent in education is the third factor to have an adverse effect on success rates in the first stage of secondary education. Having had to repeat years or having changed from one type of school to another, 5 % of 18-year-olds in 1987 were still in the first stage of secondary education, which is intended for 12 to 16-year-olds.
- The success rate is lower in HAVO than in VWO: some 20 % of HAVO pupils have to repeat their fourth year. The transition from HAVO to HBO also causes problems: a growing number of young people decide to obtain a VWO or MBO certificate before going on to HBO. These 'detours' are largely due to the problems that HAVO graduates encounter in the 'hard' sectors of HBO (higher technical and higher commercial education).

2.4.31.

MBO and the apprenticeship system are similarly having serious problems with their success rates: many participants – 30 to 40 % – leave MBO and the apprenticeship system prematurely without a certificate, only a small proportion doing so because they have found jobs. It is still too early to judge how far the merging of short and long versions of MBO is actually making it more effective.

Pupils leaving some sectors of senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and their subsequent education, 1988/89

		MBO different sector	LBO	Higher vocational education (HBO)		No full-time education
	Total	%	%	same sector %	different sector %	
Boys						
Technical education						
without certificate	8 805	6.0	0.4	18.4	0.3	74.7
with certificate	11 096	0.2	–	17.7	1.2	80.8
Tradespeople's education						
without certificate	3 674	8.4	0.4	0.2	0.1	90.7
with certificate	3 284	0.4	0.0	11.1	1.9	86.7
Commercial education						
without certificate	4 385	13.1	0.3	1.2	0.2	84.8
with certificate	5 181	0.6	0.2	31.6	3.8	63.9
Short MBO						
without certificate	155	67.1	25.8	–	–	–
with certificate	7 710	4.5	0.1	–	–	95.4
Girls						
Tradespeople's education						
without certificate	1 997	14.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	85.1
with certificate	2 118	1.2	–	5.0	1.9	91.9
Commercial education						
without certificate	4 631	10.6	0.3	0.6	0.5	87.8
with certificate	6 830	0.5	0.0	7.2	3.2	90.0
Personal and social services and health care education						
without certificate	9 010	2.9	0.4	0.2	0.5	95.8
with certificate	17 513	0.4	0.0	5.9	3.9	89.9
Short MBO						
without certificate	134	70.9	18.7	–	–	–
with certificate	5 766	5.4	0.0	–	–	94.6

Source: CBS, *Onderwijsmatrix 1988*, 1991 edition.

The efficiency of the whole second stage of secondary education is under pressure from the 'detours' in education that have already been mentioned: MAVO-HAVO-MBO or HAVO-VWO-HBO. The table shows how many pupils leave school without a certificate and what they go on to do.

2.4.32.

One important piece of legislation on MBO is the Senior Secondary Vocational Education (Formation of Sectors and Modernization) Act (Wet Sectorvorming en Vernieuwing van het Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs), which entered into force in 1991. It marks the completion of the formation of sectors (and of the increase in scale). Modernization primarily concerns the creation of a flexible and cohesive system of educational facilities for young people and adults. It will be some years before it is possible to tell how successful this modernization has been. It will partly depend on the extent to which the link with training under the apprenticeship system is forged.

The financing of vocational education courses (apprenticeship system, part-time MBO and special training), quality control and the planning of facilities are governed by the Vocational Education Courses Act.

2.4.33.

The Manpower Services Act is relevant to vocational education in that it requires vocationally oriented education to be geared to the needs of the regional labour market. The act was passed by the Lower Chamber in 1991 and will come into force on 1 August 1993. Like the Senior Secondary Vocational Education (Formation of Sectors and Modernization) Act, the Adult Education (General Provisions) Act, and the Secondary General Education Act (Wet voor het Voortgezet Algemeen Vormend Onderwijs), it is due to expire on 1 January 1996, when new, integrated legislation on vocational and adult education is to be introduced, thus creating a single legislative framework for the substantive and organizational link between the two. In other words, the Netherlands is moving towards an open system of vocational education in which senior secondary vocational education (MBO), the apprenticeship system and adult education together create a range of education opportunities for young people and adults, employed and unemployed. The main objectives in this context are:

- to optimize learning paths and make them more flexible so that young people and adults have ample opportunity to obtain initial and further qualifications relevant to the labour market;

- to increase cooperation between the educational infrastructure and the Manpower Services Organization;

- to improve the structure of communication between educational infrastructure and the business community. Not only will educational establishments respond to specific training needs of firms, but various forms of partnership between the two in the provision of training will be stimulated.

2.4.34.
To achieve a single, coherent range of training, the government envisages the establishment of colleges catering for both senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and adult education (regional training centres). In some regions steps have already been taken in this direction. It is considered essential for these colleges to have greater independence if there is to be more structural cooperation and thus the possibility of a coordinated response to regional demand for education and training. A market-oriented approach must form the basis of strategic policy in this context.

The restructuring of MBO and adult education has begun with the division of the area covered by the Manpower Services Organization into 28 regions.

2.4.35.
To enable better use to be made of the capacities of ordinary education in the provision of training for job-seekers and the employed, 28 regional education offices (Regionale Bureaus voor het Onderwijs – RBOs) were set up in 1991 for a transitional period of not more than five years. They include the coordination centres that implemented the PBVE scheme (see para. 2.4.23.) and are intended as a facility of and for MBO and adult education. Their main task is to ensure that educational establishments gain the largest possible share of the (regional) training market. To this end, they are required to submit to the Regional Manpower Service Boards (Regionale Bureaus voor de Arbeidsvoorziening – RBAs) on behalf of the educational establishments as part of a public tendering procedure, proposals that are competitive in terms of price, quality and delivery time. Eventually the education infrastructure itself will have to perform the tasks and functions of the RBOs.

2.4.36.
Finally, there is an important substantive aspect that is bound to strengthen the link between senior secondary vocational education (MBO), the apprenticeship system and training for job-seekers: the aim is to have a single, national qualification structure for MBO and the apprenticeship system, with a clear indication of how the various learning paths relate to the attainment targets that have been set and an equally clear indication of how transfers between the various courses are arranged, so as to ensure that training is more appropriate both to the capacities and interests of trainees and to qualifications required in the labour market. In the apprenticeship system the national boards (see para. 2.4.11.) play an important role in the development of the national qualification structures. In MBO the Sectoral Consultative Body for Education and the Business Community (Bedrijfstakgewijs Overleg Onderwijs-Bedrijfsleven) plays a similar role. The integration of those two bodies is the first step towards a new qualification structure. Within a single national qualification structure, with learning paths in both MBO and in the apprenticeship system, it should be possible to determine what is the best training path for each individual: short or long, in dual form or not. The announcement that regional training centres (Regionale Opleidingscentra) are to be established for vocational education and adult education, embracing basic education, general secondary education for adults, day-release education and training for job-seekers, is consistent with this view.

The current developments geared to widening the range of training should be seen from this angle.

Initial higher vocational education (HBO)

2.4.37.
Recent years have seen a number of major developments in the field of higher education. Higher vocational education has undergone the scale expansion, subject specialization and concentration of disciplines (STC) process. As mentioned in paragraph 2.2.15., this has led to the creation of 85 colleges of higher vocational education, the majority multi-sectoral. A college of higher education must satisfy the following requirements:

- it must have at least 600 students;
- it must constitute an administrative and institutional entity;
- its premises must be within a reasonable distance of the main site.

In conjunction with the scale expansion operation, HBO colleges have been given a number of new tasks, such as post-initial training and research for third parties.

2.4.38.
At present HBO and university education are still fairly distinct sectors within the higher education system: HBO seeks primarily to train the student for a given occupation, while university education is mainly geared to the pursuit of scholarship. However, such university disciplines as medicine, veterinary medicine and dentistry are clearly vocationally oriented. The number of university graduates ultimately taking research posts is, moreover, small. It is not inconceivable that there will eventually be closer administrative integration of HBO and university education.

As we have already indicated, the numbers enrolling for HBO courses rose sharply from 1980 to 1988, by almost 30 % in full-time HBO and by 10 % in part-time HBO. Relative growth in the number of participants in full-time HBO was highest in the technical, nursing and commercial courses. The proportion opting for teacher-training courses fell.

2.4.39.
In higher education too, it is difficult to calculate success rates. This would require cohort studies to monitor the progress of the students of a given year (possibly chosen at random). However, the last cohort studies in (parts of) HBO were carried out in 1974–76. The absence of more recent cohort studies notwithstanding, effectiveness and efficiency problems are also apparent in higher education: some students drop out early without a certificate, others take a long time to complete a course.

The drop-out rate from technical and commercial HBO courses is as high as 40 to 50 %. The external effectiveness of higher education is high by comparison with other levels of education. Although unemployment among HBO and university graduates has risen over the last ten years, it is still lower than the national average.

Efficiency in HBO, usually determined by the time taken to complete the course, is low. The average of 4.3 years, compared with a nominal three or four years, is likely to increase in the future as a result of the greater freedom in the organization of HBO.

2.5. Training of employees and employers

2.5.1.

The training of employees is usually known as in-service training (bedrijfsopleidingen). Its aim is to improve job performance; it is provided by firms themselves, by external training institutes or by sectoral organizations. The growing number of provisions concerning educational leave in many collective agreements (collectieve arbeidsovereenkomsten – CAOs) has led to a sharp increase in in-service training. At the end of 1989 the CAOs relating to some 80 % of employees covered by a CAO provided for one or more training or employment promotion schemes. This has also made it far more difficult to obtain a clear overview of the in-service training market: in 1989 some 12 000 training institutes ran more than 15 000 different courses on a commercial basis.

A research report on in-service training in the Netherlands (Mulder et al.) was published in 1988. Given the close links between in-service training and education and training policy in general (as regards contract teaching and vocationally oriented adult education, for example), in-service training is defined in this study as follows:

- it is provided on a non-regular basis;
- it is geared to given occupations, posts or careers;
- it is attended only by employees;
- it is wholly or partly financed by employers;
- it may be organized internally and externally;
- it is off-the-job;
- it is provided during or after working hours;
- it is initiated by the employer or employee.

The figures given in the study relate to 1986, when more than 760 000 employees (excluding public and civil servants and health care workers) attended in-service courses, 45 % of which were external. The total cost, including the cost of lost worktime, is estimated at almost HFL 2.3 billion.

The proportion of total worktime spent in training is about 3 %. Participation in in-service training is very uneven: comparatively few women, older employees and the less qualified attend in-service training courses. Most of the participants are young, highly trained men.

More recent research – carried out in the autumn of 1991 – on the training of employees (including public and civil servants and health care workers) reveals that some HFL 7.5 billion is spent on such training; this is equivalent to 2.9 % of gross wages and salaries.

Training activities are most prevalent in the public utilities, banking and business services and least prevalent in agriculture.

Participation in in-service training, by sectors, in 1988 and 1990 (%)

	1988	1990
Agriculture and fisheries	2	8
Industry	23	21
Public utilities	11	37
Construction	11	16
Trade and catering	13	15
Transport	18	24
Banking and commercial services	36	36
Other services	23	25

Source: Organisatie voor Strategisch Arbeidsmarktonderzoek (Organization for Strategic Labour Market Research) – OSA (based on a survey of employees).

2.5.2.
The leading external providers of in-service training include:

- independent training institutes,
- subsidized educational establishments, particularly higher and senior secondary vocational training (HBO and MBO) and the apprenticeship system providing contract education.

Independent training institutes form part of the private sector. Institutes that run correspondence courses and non-school oral courses are recognized parts of this private sector. Thanks to the Recognition of Educational Establishments Act (Wet Erkenning Onderwijsinstellingen – WEO), which is still in force, figures on recognized private education are available. From 1979 until the mid-1980s recognized correspondence courses suffered a 15 % decline. In 1988 the number of participants rose to 220 000, slightly higher than the 1979 level.

Some 120 000 people were participating in recognized non-school oral courses at the end of 1988.

The study on in-service training mentioned above reveals that over 50 % of trainers considered the content of their courses suitable for inclusion in initial vocational education. Over 60 % regarded the content of their courses as suitable or very suitable for inclusion in training programmes at sectoral level. Extending firms' training efforts to include initial vocational education and training at sectoral level is therefore a definite option.

Recent years have seen a tremendous boom both in the demand for different types of training and in the response to this demand from an increasing number of commercial and non-commercial training establishments. However, growing awareness of price and quality among those willing to pay for training, combined with the importance of human resource development, will, in all likelihood, lead to a decline in the number of these training establishments in the early 1990s.

2.5.3.
Finally, we will consider courses for employers, which are intended primarily for people who want sooner or later to start a small or medium-sized business of their own. The aim of some participants is, however, merely to become an employee in a small or medium-sized firm.

The requirements for a licence to set up a business are defined by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, which also supervises the examinations. The educational side of the courses is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Science. Educational establishments designated by the appropriate organizations of trade and industry may qualify for a contribution towards the cost of courses for employers.

Such establishments include schools (senior secondary retail trade schools and some streams in junior and senior secondary technical schools, for example), recognized correspondence course establishments, institutes of recognized non-school oral education, institutes running courses for employers and the apprenticeship system (day-release education). Some courses for employers are also run by private schools and institutes for non-recognized correspondence courses, courses for employers and non-school oral teaching.

The courses for employers comprise the following:

- courses leading to a certificate in general commercial skills (duration: 180 hours);
- courses geared to the retail trade (up to 270 hours);
- courses geared to the craft and service sectors (from 180 to 600 hours).

In the 1988/89 school year almost 26 000 people participated in this type of education. Almost 60 % attended courses geared to the retail trade, over 25 % courses leading to a certificate in general trade skills and the remaining 15 % courses geared to the craft and service sectors. The figures relate to 29 of the 36 institutes running courses for employers that are completely or partly financed by the Ministry of Education and Science.

LEGISLATION AND THE FINANCIAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Legislation on vocational education and training

General framework

3.1.1.
Education in the Netherlands was long characterized by a centralist policy, with the government exercising control through legislation. The administrative model that has evolved over the years makes central government responsible for maintaining an adequate education system, a task it performs by means of inspection and a system of central examination, and the bodies in charge of the primary and secondary schools responsible for curricula, teaching materials and teaching methods.

From the mid-1960s there was a growing tendency for government to concern itself with the aims of education and how they might be achieved by passing legislation. The education system for its part wanted to be involved in the preparation and definition of the government's policy. The result was a round of intensive consultations between the government and umbrella organizations on (education) policy issues. In Section 2.1 we briefly referred to the sectarian nature of the Dutch education system and the consultation structure associated with it. (The four umbrella organizations, one each for State education, general special education, Protestant education and Catholic education, act as coordinating bodies for organizations within each sector.) This gave rise to a pattern of policy-making and legislation detailing what individual schools could and could not do. The schools' own scope for policy-making was reduced accordingly, which obstructed proper administration.

In the early 1980s a review of this administrative model resulted in a concept requiring institutions to be given the greatest possible scope for independent policy-making in the performance of their tasks. Government was to concentrate on formulating objectives, generally setting criteria, monitoring quality and ensuring that funds were spent effectively. Legislation was therefore to be directed at what education was required to produce rather than how it was produced.

In various sectors of education, and especially in vocational education, this administrative concept is steadily taking shape. This trend is strongly endorsed in a report by the Temporary Advisory Commission on Education and the Labour Market (the Rauwenhoff Commission). The Commission believes that the improvement in the relationship between education and the labour market must be accompanied by a fundamental change in the tasks and responsibilities of the various parties concerned: participants, employers, schools and government. Educational establishments must have greater independence if there are to be more permanent forms of cooperation with the social environment (including the labour market). The Commission also feels that a further increase in scale in vocational education, with establishments catering for several types of education, would make for a better response to regional demand for education and training. Fewer rules and the adoption of a market-oriented policy by educational establishments should enable them to perform the tasks expected of them.

The education policy launched by the government is certainly developing along these lines. In the case of senior secondary vocational education (MBO), we have already referred to the process of sectoral restructuring and modernization (SVM), geared to a (further) increase in scale, concentration of the training available (at regional level), greater independence for educational establishments and closer cooperation between education and the social environment.

Legislative framework of senior secondary vocational education (MBO)

3.1.2.

The structure, planning and financing of MBO are defined in the Secondary Education Act (Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs). The SVM legislation governs both the new MBO structure and the one-time planning procedure, which is needed to achieve scale expansion. The institutions are given the freedom, within the limits of attainment targets set at national level, to determine their training courses themselves. The two sides of industry are closely involved in defining the attainment targets, which are ultimately set by the Minister.

MBO examinations are still governed by numerous institutional orders. In the future the MBO colleges themselves will be largely responsible for examining pupils. Efforts are being made to harmonize the various examination rules to give a single examination regulation for the whole of modernized MBO.

In line with the colleges' greater independence a new method of financing MBO based on a state contribution (lump sum), which the colleges may spend at their discretion, has been introduced. Transfers between spending on staff and equipment are permitted.

Legislative framework of the apprenticeship system

3.1.3.

The relationship between learning at school (school component) and practical learning (practical component) is governed by the Apprenticeship Act (Wet op het Leerlingwezen). Responsibility for the two components is divided: responsibility for the school component (day-release education) rests with the schools, which are accountable to the Minister for Education and Science. The practical component is the responsibility of the employer or legal person who signs the apprenticeship agreement. The latter may be an association of several firms. Whoever signs the agreement undertakes to ensure that the apprentice is trained in the practical aspects of the occupation concerned and performs the practical tasks assigned to him, to enable him to pursue his general and vocationally oriented education and to take the appropriate examinations, and to ensure compliance with the legislation on social insurance for apprentices and the safety provisions in the firm in accordance with the apprenticeship and employment contract.

The apprenticeship system forms part of vocational education that is provided in course form. The Vocational Education Courses Act (Wet op het Cursorisch Beroepsonderwijs) will enter into force on 1 August 1993. It occupies a key position in the whole process of legislating on vocational education and adult education that was provisionally completed in 1992. It lays the statutory foundations for the training activities undertaken by the Regional Manpower Service Boards (RBAs) and their financing. It also increases the tasks and activities of secondary schools. In addition to the normal funds from central government, the schools will receive funds through the Manpower Services Organization (Arbeidsvoorzieningsorganisatie) to run vocationally oriented courses for jobseekers. Schools may also run self-financing courses on behalf of firms, for example. The act forges a link between the apprenticeship system and senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and between part-time and full-time vocational education and training activities by following the Manpower Services Organization's pattern. In other words, the act relates ordinary education provisions to the labour market and the training it requires.

The present Regional Apprenticeship Boards (Regionale Organen voor het leerlingwezen) are, together with the Employers and Teachers Liaison Centres (Contactcentra Onderwijs-Arbeid – COAs) and the private educational and vocational guidance bureaux, involved in a process of restructuring educational and vocational guidance, which will culminate in the creation of 28 Regional Service Centres (Regionale Dienstcentra – RDCs), one for each area of the Netherlands in which there is a Regional Manpower Service Board (RBA). In principle, the Regional Service Centres will be independent organizations providing guidance on education and occupations and the link between education and the labour market. They are structurally financed by the Ministry of Education and Science. Their tasks complement the activities of the educational establishments and the Manpower Services Organization. In the start-up period they may conclude guaranteed cooperation contracts with schools (for four years) and RBAs (for two years). The 28 Regional Service Centres will begin work on 1 August 1993.

Legislative framework of adult education

3.1.4.

A number of important policy changes are currently expected in the field of adult education. The most important laws in this field are the Adult Education (General Provisions) Act (Kaderwet Volwasseneneducatie – KVE), the Manpower Services Act (Arbeidsvoorzieningwet), the Statutory Regulation on adult general secondary education (Wettelijke regeling voor het Voortgezet Algemeen Volwassenenonderwijs – VAVO) and the Vocational Education Courses Act (Wet op het Cursorisch Beroepsonderwijs – WCBO). These laws have recently been approved by Parliament.

The KVE governs the planning and coordination of the four categories of adult education:

- basic education;
- local education and development activities;
- adult general secondary education;
- vocational education courses.

The planning of activities is essentially split between national level, at which services are arranged, the budget is set and overall priorities are set, and decentralized level, at which the details of training efforts are decided, with the regional authorities and/or the two sides of industry involved.

Under the Manpower Services Act the tripartite Manpower Services Organization (Arbeidsvoorzieningsorganisatie) is assigned the task of attuning the volume and quality of training to the needs of the labour market and the structure of employment in the region.

Within the parameters of the national policy framework each of the 28 Regional Manpower Service Boards (Regionale Besturen voor de Arbeidsvoorziening) draws up its own policy plan, which contains a section on training covering

- training requirements in the various sectors of the region's economy;
- the target groups and especially the training needs of registered job-seekers;
- training instruments (estimate of budgets needed and of numbers of participants);
- the implementation plan: the tasks to be assigned to the training institutions.

A public tendering procedure for training ensures that the ordinary education infrastructure and private training institutes are involved in meeting the demand for training. The RBA will always ask for quotations from the Regional Education Office, which represents all the educational establishments in its region. However, it may also make direct approaches to training institutes or educational establishments. Educational establishments do not receive any preferential treatment. Training contracts are awarded on the basis of price, quality and delivery time.

Although the legislative process relating to adult education has not yet been completed (some laws will not come into effect until 1993), action is already being taken in anticipation of the legislation. The government has announced its goal of eventually (1996) having a single, comprehensive Vocational Education Act (Wet op het Beroepsonderwijs) that also covers adult eduction.

Legislative framework of higher vocational education (HBO)

3.1.5.

The aim of the planning exercise known as Scale Expansion, Subject Specialization and Concentration of Disciplines (STC) that was carried out in higher vocational education in the 1980s was to strengthen the position of HBO and so put it on a par with university education within higher education. The first step was to share responsibility between government and higher vocational education itself. The government indicated the direction to be followed, created the necessary environment and assumed responsibility for:

- the legislative framework (the Higher Vocational Education Act – Wet op het Hoger Beroepsonderwijs – WHBO, 1986);
- the new system of budgeting;
- the social policy;
- the legal status of staff.

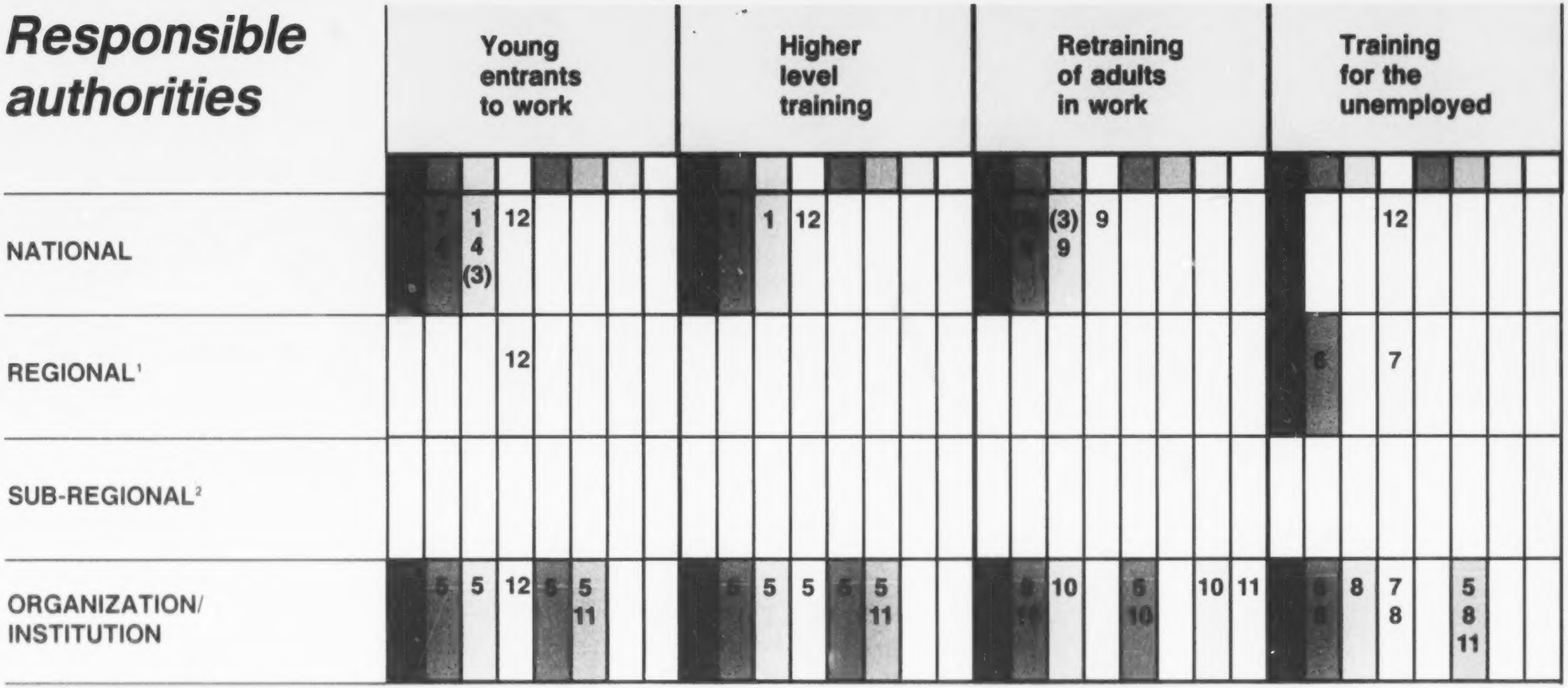
The Higher Vocational Education Act permits institutes to undertake applied research for third parties.

As regards the planning of higher vocational education, the intention is that the Minister for Education and Science and the Minister for Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries (where agricultural education is concerned) should establish a Higher Education and Research Plan (Hoger Onderwijs en Onderzoek Plan – HOOP) each year. Once adopted, this plan will become the framework for financing decisions. Any institute seeking funds must submit a development plan.

The Higher Vocational Education Act has changed the financing of this training sector significantly. The universities receive grants the size of which is largely determined by student numbers and which they may spend as they wish provided that they satisfy the basic requirements. This is known as block grant financing. The block grant is based on prescriptive assignment profiles, which are derived from the tasks agreed with the government. The assignment profiles indicate the minimum funds required for the various tasks to be performed, such as education, research, services, administration and management.

The trend towards large and more independent educational establishments is well under way in higher vocational education (HBO). (We have already seen this trend emerging in senior secondary vocational education.) The government's role in this has changed from *ex ante* control through legislation to *ex post* measurement and evaluation of output. However, the institutions themselves remain primarily responsible for creating a system of monitoring and improving quality.

The organization and scale of examinations are governed by the HBO Statute, a general administrative order specifying the types of HBO, the disciplines and second-stage courses HBO comprises. It also governs all the various arrangements required by the Higher Vocational Education Act.



Responsible authorities	Young entrants to work								Higher level training								Retraining of adults in work								Training for the unemployed							
NATIONAL		1 4	1 4 (3)	12						1	1	12						[illegible]	(3) 9	9								12				
REGIONAL[1]				12																						6		7				
SUB-REGIONAL[2]																																
ORGANIZATION/ INSTITUTION		5	5	12	5	5 11				5	5	5	5	5 11				9 10	10		5 10		10	11		6 8	8	7 8		5 8 11		

1. Ministry of Education and Science / Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries
2. Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment / Central Manpower Service Board
3. Ministry of Economic Affairs
4. National boards for the apprenticeship system / vocational education (including sectoral consultation between the education system and the business community)
5. Schools for initial vocational education
   - BBO/MBO; full-time/part-time
   - HBO; full-time/part-time
6. Regional Manpower Service Board
7. Regional Education Office
8. Training services provided by the Manpower Service Organization (CBB; CVV; vocational schools for women)
9. Sectoral organizations of employers and training funds supported by the two sides of industry
10. Private training institutes
11. Employers
12. National service centre and regional training and occupational advisory office

[1] Applicable in only 28 RBA areas. Otherwise see under organizations.
[2] Not applicable in the Netherlands.

■ Regulation of system
▨ Determination of content
□ Assessment and certification
□ Information and guidance

Delivery:

▨ In education institution or training centre or

□ Alternance and day release
□ Self study
□ In workplace only

( ) The organizations marked in brackets have a subsidiary role.

3.2. Financing

General

3.2.1.
In the Netherlands the government meets most of the cost of education: staff, premises and the maintenance of facilities. There is no legislation to say what is regarded as the financial responsibility of the government, the individual or third parties. The debate on how this responsibility should be shared continues.

The freedom of education for which Article 23 of the Basic Law provides (see paragraph 1.1.) has a particular bearing on the financing of Dutch education. It means that the government does not necessarily organize and control education even where it provides the funds. Its role may be confined to supervision and framing the requirements to be satisfied.

University education aside, a school or training course qualifies for government financing only if it appears on an approved school plan.

3.2.2.
In the financing of education a distinction needs to be made between government-funded education and education funded from another source.

The Ministry of Education and Science pays for most government-funded education. The Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries finances agricultural education, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment specific training measures under the labour market policy, the Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural Affairs some adult and in-service health care education and the Ministry of Economic Affairs education for employers. Most of the funds needed to finance education that satisfies government requirements are obtained from tax revenue, with class, course and college fees making a minor contribution.

Education not funded by the government comprises private education, company training schemes and ordinary education that does not satisfy government requirements. The cost of private education is borne by the participants. For employees needing education to hold their own in their jobs recourse may be had to the Framework Training Scheme (Kaderregeling Scholing) run by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. The cost of company training schemes is usually borne by the employer. Education that does not qualify for government funding is financed by parental contributions, course fees and donations.

3.2.3.
Adult education is financed both by the Ministry of Education and Science and by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. The former bears the cost of the day-release education of apprentices and of the part-time senior secondary vocational education (MBO) of people in employment, while the latter finances training for job-seekers. In principle, the cost of the practical component of apprenticeship training is borne by the employer, although the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment does make a contribution under the apprentice training grant scheme (Bijdrageregeling Vakopleiding Leerlingwezen).

3.2.4.
Apart from collecting a separate contribution, the government has a study financing scheme to guarantee access to education for the less well off. The 1987/88 academic year saw the introduction of a new scheme under which a contribution is made towards the education expenses of all students aged at least 18 in full-time education recognized by the government. This contribution consists of two parts:

- **a basic grant,** the amount depending on the student's age and where he lives, irrespective of the parents' income;

- **supplementary finance,** partly in the form of a loan on which interest is payable and partly in the form of a supplementary grant.

Expenditure on education

3.2.5.
As stated above, most of the cost of education is borne by the Ministry of Education and Science. From 1975 to 1987 its expenditure in absolute terms rose sharply from almost HFL 18 billion to over HFL 30 billion. Since 1988 the annual education budget has been about HFL 30 to 31 billion. At 1980 prices, expenditure has risen slightly, by something over HFL 1 billion.

As a proportion of total government spending, expenditure on education fell from 23.7% in 1980 to 15.11% in 1988. This was mainly due to the growth of expenditure in other sectors, such as social services, and to the national debt. From 1975 to 1987 expenditure on education as a proportion of national income fell by one percentage point, from 8 to 7%.

In 1992 the Ministry of Education and Science had a budget of over HFL 31 billion. Over HFL 2.8 billion of this (8.5%) is earmarked for vocational and adult education, more than HFL 1.8 billion (over 5%) for higher vocational education (HBO).

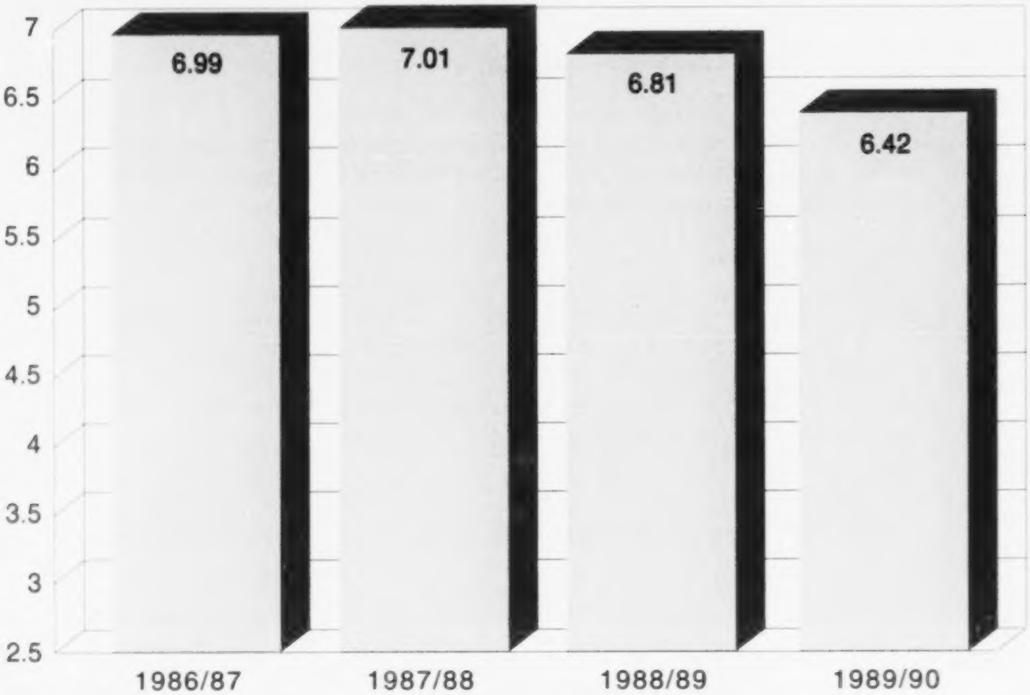
The Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries provides almost HFL 1 billion to finance agricultural education, including junior secondary and university agricultural education. The Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment similarly makes funds available for training under the labour market policy: almost HFL 1.3 billion in 1990. The municipal authorities also make a contribution towards the funding of education, estimated at HFL 680 million in 1987.

It is difficult to put a precise figure to expenditure on adult education because of the different definitions used in the various reports. It is estimated that expenditure on the whole adult education sector in 1988 amounted to HFL 6.5 billion. Adult education is clearly a growth sector. The three Ministries most directly concerned are estimated to have spent some HFL 1.9 billion on adult education in 1990. Spending on company training schemes in 1990 is estimated at HFL 3.5 to 4 billion.

3.2.6
The 1980s saw major developments in vocational education in the Netherlands. During the economic recession of the early 1980s it was increasingly realized that vocational education is a means of contributing to economic progress. This led to a situation in which the modernization and reinforcement of vocational education was seen as a joint responsibility of government and the two sides of industry. The aim was not only to increase participation and maintain the supply of labour: interest in vocational education was also stimulated by changes at the workplace due to the use of new technologies.

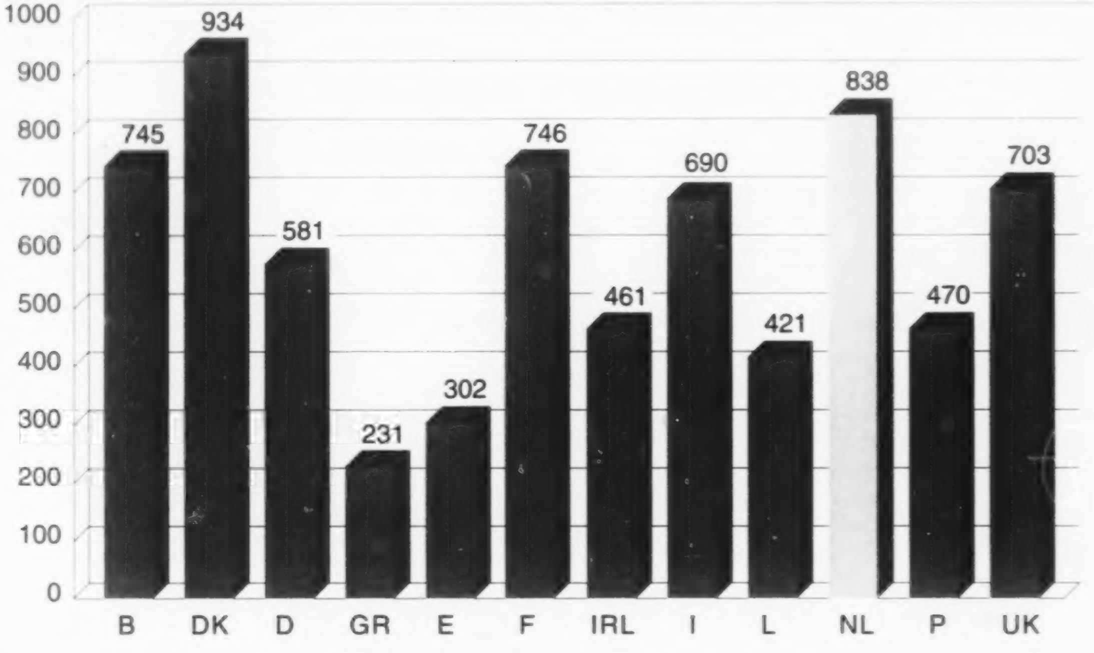
Vocational education expanded considerably in the 1980s. This expansion was accompanied by a sharp increase in government spending on vocational education. With the business community considered to be in a strong position in the early 1990s, central government is reviewing the financing of vocational education as it generally seeks to ease the burden on the exchequer. The idea behind this is that the burden of cost increases due to factors outside the government's sphere of influence cannot simply be borne by the public purse. In consultation with the business community an attempt is being made to have the joint responsibility of the government and the two sides of industry for vocational education also reflected in its financing.

Public expenditure on education (Netherlands) (% of GDP)



Source: OECD: Education in OECD countries 1986/87 and 1987/88.
'OECD in Figures' 1991, 1992 and 1993 editions.

Public expenditure on education in 1985 (in purchasing power standard – PPS, per head of population)



Source: Eurostat – *A Social Portrait of Europe* 1991.

TRENDS AND PERSPECTIVES

As we have seen in the previous sections, vocational education in the Netherlands is changing significantly. The new legislation introduced from 1986 to 1992 establishes the framework for the future of ordinary vocational education. The outlook is closely linked to

- the trend in employment,
- the position of various groups in the labour market,
- the status of vocational education in the second stage of secondary education and how it competes with general secondary education and higher vocational education,
- how involved in the content, organization and financing of vocational education the two sides of industry feel.

4.1. Employment trends and the position of target groups

4.1.1.

Employment is expected to continue growing for the next few years (see Section 1.3.). At the same time, the quantitative and qualitative demand for labour will change. Employment in sectors requiring relatively large numbers of poorly qualified people (industry, for example) is declining. Changes in the structure of training are also leading to a shift from work for poorly qualified people to work for the more highly qualified.

4.1.2.

The participation rate among women is also expected to rise. The 1990 measure, which assumes that all women born after 1972 should be economically independent, will result in fewer women stopping work on the birth of their first child and in more women re-entering the labour market, possibly after some form of specific training. Their prospects of finding work are fairly good since employment is growing primarily in sectors to which women are traditionally attracted: commerce, catering, services and health care.

4.1.3.

The number of school-leavers continues to fall. Girls opt mainly for training in caring and administrative occupations, often at senior secondary level, while a relatively large proportion of boys choose technical training. These choices will ensure boys and girls good employment prospects, since shortages of people with such training cannot be ruled out in the 1990s. Poorly trained young people and school-leavers without certificates will probably benefit less from the fall in the number of young people available for work and the growth of employment because of the sometimes changing demands made on first jobs.

4.1.4.

The employment prospects of the non-indigenous population can improve only if they derive above-average benefit from the growth of employment. In 1980 there were 2.2 million 5 to 14-year-old Dutch nationals and 127 000 non-indigenous people (5.5 %) in this age group; in 1989 8.4 %, or 151 000, of 1.6 million 5 to 14-year-olds were non-indigenous. The percentage is forecast to rise sharply in the next two decades. As their relatively poor education makes it likely that unemployment among the non-indigenous will remain at best stable, their position in the labour market will worsen, partly because of the higher skill levels needed in the labour market.

4.2 General and vocationally oriented education

4.2.1.

Reference has already been made in Section 2 to the generalization of junior secondary vocational education (LBO). This type of education has changed from training pupils for an occupation to giving them a general and pre-vocational education.

4.2.2.

When we consider the debate on the functions of education, we find that in the 1970s it centred on equal opportunities in education. It was felt that a vocational education should offer at least the same prospects as a general education: the main aim was to provide the best possible opportunities for going on to senior secondary and higher vocational education (MBO and HBO), both from general secondary education and from previous vocational education. Efforts were geared to limiting the differences between general and vocationally oriented education.

4.2.3.

In the 1980s greater emphasis was placed on the specific nature of vocational education. In the past decade attention focused on the problem of youth unemployment, better regulation of the relationship between education and the labour market and optimizing communication between education and employers and adjusting and redefining the structure of qualifications in the light of technological and social changes at the workplace. This does not mean that transferring from one form or level of education to another was considered unimportant at this time.

4.2.4.

Within the various forms of vocational education importance is also attached to the introduction of general elements in view of developments in the world of work which call for school-leavers capable of tackling a wide range of tasks, prepared to go on learning and able to cope flexibly with changes at the workplace. Although this trend is most pronounced in junior secondary vocational education (LBO), it has also left its mark on vocational education in the second stage of secondary education, the apprenticeship system and senior secondary vocational education (MBO). The debate on the relationship between the general and the specifically vocational in vocational education can even be expected to become more topical in the 1990s. The elementary skills needed for any occupation will be learned during the first stage of secondary education/basic education. Workers should also have skills associated with a specific occupation or category of occupations and skills of a more general nature that transcend given occupations (e.g. a broader knowledge of languages and the ability to work in a team). This debate will be further fuelled by the plan to link and coordinate (broader) senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and the (more specific) apprenticeship system in the 1990s.

4.3. The position of senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and vocationally oriented adult education within the overall education system

4.3.1.
As already pointed out in Section 2, the aim is to create a small number of regional training centres in each of the 28 RBA areas to provide senior secondary vocational education (full- and part-time), apprenticeship training, training for jobseekers, general adult education and basic education for adults. In the next few years this process of pooling educational facilities will be actively encouraged. The centres can also take on the training of employees on a contractual basis. The increase in scale resulting from the merging of still (partly) separate vocational and adult education schools and the consequent strengthening of administrative capacity is expected to make these new regional training centres highly competitive in the education market. Some qualification is perhaps appropriate, however, in view of the following:

- the need for the regional training centres to ensure that vulnerable groups in education and the labour market also acquire qualifications (see also Section 4.5);

- the institutional link between basic education for 12 to 15-year-olds and subsequent general secondary education: a pupil who opts for general education after his basic education can remain in the same school set-up, but not if he opts for vocational education; the higher value still attached to general secondary education also puts vocational education in a weaker competitive position;

- the government has yet to honour its commitment to develop shorter higher vocational education (HBO) programmes, although there will be a growing need for at least additional training and then possibly for vocational education at the MBO-plus level.

Pessimists in senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and the apprenticeship system therefore predict that (some) vocational education at the second stage of secondary education will develop into 'residual education' in the same way as junior secondary vocational education (LBO).

4.4. The relationship between education and the business community

4.4.1.

The Dutch education system has traditionally been based on (full-time) school education; the same is true of vocational education, even though it often includes a period of practical, on-the-job training. There were no rules on the involvement of the two sides of industry in vocational education, except in the case of the apprenticeship system. In the 1980s the involvement of the two sides of industry and the business community in vocational education increased and was formalized to some extent. This is reflected in the following and other factors:

- The two sides of industry are involved in the setting of attainment targets for senior secondary vocational education (MBO), in much the same way as they help to set such targets in the apprenticeship system. They do not have the same legal power to advise on the aims of higher vocational education (HBO); the HBO system itself must ensure that it meets the requirements of its customers in the labour market.

- The two sides of industry and the government are jointly responsible for employment strategy and thus for training for job-seekers and workers threatened with redundancy. Training may or may not take the form of ordinary subsidized education.

- The idea, succinctly formulated by the Rauwenhoff Commission (1990), that a vocational school is a business that produces qualifications: customer-oriented, product-oriented, efficient. In recent years individual schools and the business community have taken many initiatives to improve their relationship. They include:

    - the improvement and intensification of practical training periods for certain groups of trainees;

    - the introduction of periods of training in the business community for teachers, with assistance available from the regional Employers and Teachers Liaison Centres (Contactcentra Onderwijs-Arbeid – COAs) established by the government in the 1980s;

    - the 'adoption' of junior secondary vocational (LBO) schools by the business community, which then provides equipment, etc.;

    - 'free-port projects' aimed at improving the relationship between teachers and employers in an unorthodox way by suspending the application of some legislation;

    - the option, permitted by the legislation, of providing self-financing training for the business community on a contractual basis.

- **Alternance learning**
  The apprenticeship system was reviewed in the 1980s. The numbers opting for this system of on-the-job learning quickly doubled, partly because of subsidies (see para. 2.4.25.) and the relaxation of requirements in the apprenticeship system: four days of practical training in a firm and one day of education at a school. Other combinations of work and learning (alternance learning) have since become common in the apprenticeship system. They are not only the consequence of the sensitivity of the apprenticeship system to the economic climate: both full-time vocational education and the practical training provided by the apprenticeship system have their limitations when it comes to acquiring appropriate vocational qualifications for the labour market. The Rauwenhoff Commission therefore put forward far-reaching proposals for the 'dualization' of all vocational education in the Netherlands (1990). The greater organizational freedom of vocational education for which the legislation now provides makes it possible to experiment with different ratios of learning to work, with set attainment targets duly taken into account. The details of how these targets are to be achieved may be decided for each sector, especially within the apprenticeship system and senior secondary vocational education (MBO).

  Although the practical consequences of dualization have not yet been fully worked out, it is likely to be high on the agenda when the methodological and didactic design of vocational education is considered. In the experimental intermediate training in senior secondary vocational education (MBO) the focus is on forms of full-time vocational education at school, while in the final stage the on-the-job learning that already exists in the apprenticeship system is taking shape.

4.4.2.
This tendency towards closer links between vocational education and its customers is changing the vocational school culture. The differences from general secondary education are growing. This tendency is expected to continue in the 1990s. The closeness of the relationship and the degree of coordination between education and customers partly depend on how capable the business community and manpower services are of identifying the quantitative and qualitative demand for education and training. In any deliberations on educational establishments as organizations that provide a service the demand side is likely to want a greater say; the question is whether it will succeed, given the capricious and unpredictable nature of technological and social developments in the world of work. It is not impossible that attuning vocational education to the needs of the labour market will wane in importance again in the thinking on ordinary and initial vocational education (see also Section 4.2 for the learning of transitional skills). The two sides of industry will then again be less involved in initial vocational education, but continue to be heavily involved in training initiatives for workers in various sectors. In negotiations on collective agreements the training of employees and specifically further agreements on the structure and details of educational leave will attract considerable interest in the coming decade.

4.5. Policy dilemmas

This study has considered the trend in participation in (vocational) education, social inequality in education, the need to improve success rates in education and scale expansion. While each of those developments is important in its own right, they are also directly interrelated.

4.5.1.

The Sociaal Cultureel Rapport (Social and Cultural Report) for 1990 tentatively formulates some of the dilemmas resulting from the interplay of these developments:

- There may be some tension between substantial growth in participation in higher forms of education and the improvement of success rates. Opting for the general accessibility of these forms of education seems difficult to reconcile with wanting at least to maintain the level of quality. Greater differentiation of levels might be a way out of this dilemma, but the question is whether there is a need for more qualification levels in the labour market. It is revealing in this context that the government thwarted the introduction of short higher vocational education (HBO) courses and that intermediate senior secondary vocational education (MBO) courses are for the time being limited in number and experimental.

  This dilemma at the upper end of the education ladder also faces individual schools and institutions. Should they opt for high pass rates or for maintaining quality standards, for growth in student numbers, with the consequent risk of high drop-out rates and long periods in education (if this continues to be possible), or for tighter selection procedures?

- A second dilemma concerns late developers and drop-outs. As more young people achieve higher levels of education, the position of late developers becomes more difficult. Most are from poorer social backgrounds and belong to various non-indigenous groups. This social problem of a growing number of people unable to meet the increasingly stringent demands of society cannot be solved by education alone.

  The law provides for short periods of practical training for guidance purposes during junior secondary vocational education (LBO). Considerable emphasis needs to be placed on practical, vocationally oriented skills in the first stage of secondary education, combined with basic education. The authors of this report believe that, if this group of late developers can then be integrated by means of a system of apprenticeship training, the problem can be alleviated.

- The operations which led to scale expansion in higher and senior secondary vocational education (HBO and MBO) were initiated by the government with the aim of increasing efficiency (less fragmentation, reduction of costs per participant) and effectiveness (better pass rates). Policy instruments have so far been primarily geared to improving efficiency.

  Making vocational schools more independent means giving them more power over the administration of financial resources and the organization of education. The government traditionally has the task of monitoring the quality of education. It is not yet altogether clear what implications the deregulation tendency will have for this government task: what is the optimum combination of attainment targets, whether or not set by the government (and how specific should they be), what role should the independent education inspectorate play, what should be the role and status of review committees, which assess the quality of training courses, and what importance should be attached to the annual reports submitted by vocational schools on results achieved?

- The government, which finances ordinary vocational education, has been trying to limit public spending for many years. That is at odds with the growing demand from individuals and employers for higher levels and, as a rule, more expensive forms of education. The expenditure on education comprises a participation component and a cost-per-participant component. As participation is in itself regarded as being of major social importance, considerable circumspection is exercised in controlling the trend in participation. The cost per participant has been drastically reduced in recent years. The authors of the 1990 Social and cultural report end their review of education by concluding that, if the education budget is left virtually unchanged, there is no avoiding a fundamental debate on the right to participate in education that is entirely financed by the government.

4.5.2.
To conclude, we feel that contributions from users (participants in courses), government and customers (firms) towards the financing of vocational education will regularly be high on the education policy agenda in the 1990s; all manner of mixed forms of public and private financing can be envisaged. The experiments currently being conducted in various training sectors with a view to dualizing vocational education, or strengthening its practical component, by involving the business community point in this direction. At present we see less interest being taken in the educational dimension of dualization than in the financial dimension (who pays?) and the administrative and organizational dimension (who is put in control?).

This is largely due to the strong emphasis traditionally placed on schools in Dutch vocational education. It is nevertheless clear that considerable attention will be paid in the near future to the question how practical learning can be further strengthened, which all concerned (the two sides of industry, government and educational establishments) want to see.

ANNEXES

Annex 1

List of Abbreviations

AOC	Agrarisch Opleidingscentrum (agricultural college)
APS	Algemeen Pedagogisch Studiecentrum (General Educational Advisory Centre)
AVO	Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs (general secondary education)
BBO	Beroepsbegeleidend Onderwijs (day-release education)
BBS	Bijdrageregeling Bedrijfstakgewijze Scholing (sectoral training grant scheme)
BOOB	Bedrijfstakgewijs Overleg Onderwijs-Bedrijfsleven (Sectoral Consultative Body for Teachers and Employers)
BVL	Bijdrageregeling Vakopleiding Leerlingwezen (apprentice training grant scheme)
CAO	Collectieve Arbeidsovereenkomst (Collective Agreement)
CBA	Centraal Bestuur voor de Arbeidsvoorziening (Central Manpower Service Board)
CBB	Centrum voor Beroepsoriëntatie en Beroepsoefening (Centre for Occupational Orientation and Training)
CBO	Cursorisch beroepsonderwijs (vocational training in course form)
CBS	Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (Central Bureau of Statistics)
CIBB	Centrum Innovatie Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven (Centre for Innovation in Vocational Education and Training)
CITO	Centraal Instituut voor Toetsontwikkeling (National Institute for Educational Measurement)
CNV	Christelijk Nationaal Vakverbond (National Federation of Christian Trade Unions)
COLO	Centraal Orgaan van Landelijke Opleidingsorganen (Central Office of the National Industrial Training Organizations)
CPB	Centraal Planbureau (Central Planning Bureau)
CPS	Christelijk Pedagogisch Studiecentrum (Protestant Educational Advisory Centre)
CV	Centrum voor Vakopleiding (vocational training centre)
EZ	Ministerie van Economische Zaken (Ministry of Economic Affairs)
FNV	Federatie Nederlandse Vakbeweging (Federation of Netherlands Trade Unions)
GOA	Gemeenschappelijke Opleidingsactiviteit (joint training activity)
HAVO	Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs (senior general secondary education)
HBO	Hoger Beroepsonderwijs (higher vocational education)

KNOV	Koninklijk Nederlands Ondernemersbond (Netherlands Small Business Federation)
KPC	Katholiek Pedagogisch Centrum (Catholic education centre)
KVE	Kaderwet Volwasseneneducatie (Adult Education (general provisions) Act)
LBO	Lager Beroepsonderwijs (junior secondary vocational education)
LNV	Ministerie van Landbouw, Natuurbeheer en Visserij (Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries)
LTO	Lager Technisch Onderwijs (junior secondary technical education)
MAO	Middelbaar Agrarisch Onderwijs (senior secondary agricultural education)
MAVO	Middelbaar Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs (junior general secondary education)
MBO	Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (senior secondary vocational education)
MDGO	Middelbaar Dienstverlenings- en Gezondheidszorgonderwijs (senior secondary personal and social services and health care education)
MEAO	Middelbaar Economisch en Administratief onderwijs (senior secondary commercial education)
MHNO	Middelbar Huishoud- en Nijverheidsonderwijs (senior secondary home economics education)
MMO	Middelbaar Middenstandsonderwijs (senior secondary tradespeople's education)
MNO	Middelbaar Nautisch Onderwijs (senior secondary nautical education)
MSPO	Middelbaar Sociaal Pedagogisch Onderwijs (senior secondary social work education)
MTO	Middelbaar Technisch Onderwijs (senior secondary technical education)
NCOV	Nederlands Christelijk Ondernemersverbond (Christian Association of small and medium-sized enterprises in the Netherlands)
NCW	Nederlands Christelijk Werkgeversverbond (Netherlands Federation of Christian Employers)
O en W	Ministerie van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen (Ministry of Education and Science)
PBVE	Primaire Beroepsgerichte Volwasseneneducatie (elementary vocationally oriented education for adults)
RBA	Regionaal Bestuur Arbeidsvoorziening (Regional Manpower Service Board)
RBO	Regionaal Bureau Onderwijs (Regional education office)
RDC	Regionaal Dienstcentrum (Regional service centre)

SCP	Sociaal Cultureel Planbureau (Social and Cultural Planning Bureau)
STC	Schaalvergroting, Taakverdeling en Concentratie (scale expansion, subject specialization and concentration of disciplines)
SVE	Stichting Volwassenen Educatie (National Adult Education Study and Development Centre)
SVM	Sectorvorming- en Vernieuwingsproces in het MBO (sectoral restructuring and modernization process in MBO)
SZW	Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid (Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment)
VAVO	Voortgezet Algemeen Volwassenenonderwijs (general secondary adult education
VNO	Verbond van Nederlandse Ondernemingen (Federation of Netherlands Industry)
VWJ	Vormingswerk Werkende Jongeren (training scheme for young workers)
VWO	Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (pre-university education)
WCBO	Wet op het Cursorisch Beroepsonderwijs (Vocational Education Courses Act)
WHBO	Wet op het Hoger Beroepsonderwijs (Higher Vocational Education Act)
WLW	Wet op het Leerlingwezen (Apprenticeship Act)
WO	Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (university education)
WVC	Ministerie van Welzijn, Volksgezondheid en Cultuur (Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural Affairs)
WVO	Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs (Secondary Education Act)
WWO	Wet op het Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (University Education Act)

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Annex 4

Glossary of terms

The following brief list of terms and explanations of how they have been used in this report has been drawn up by the author. It makes no claim to be an authoritative terminological work. In this context we would refer the reader to CEDEFOP's on-going activities in the field of terminology and vocational training. Those interested in the work should contact Frau Linshöft-Stiller in CEDEFOP.

Allochtonen (non-indigenous population): Used here as in the CBS statistical survey of the working population: persons resident in the Netherlands, forming part of the working population and belonging to one of the following categories: Surinamese, Antillese, Turkish, Moroccan, other Europeans, other non-Europeans.

Arbeidsvoorziening (manpower services): With effect from 1 January 1991 the Central Manpower Service Board (Centraal Bestuur Arbeidsvoorziening – CBA) and 28 Regional Manpower Service Boards (Regionale Besturen Arbeidsvoorziening – RBAs) were officially launched, giving employers, employees and government, cooperating in a tripartite organization, the opportunity to consider supply and demand in the labour market. Since that date the operation of employment offices and vocational training centres has been the responsibility of the Regional Manpower Service Boards (RBAs).

> **RBAs and CBA:** The Regional Manpower Service Boards (Regionale Besturen Arbeidsvoorziening – RBAs) are made up of representatives of employers, employees and the municipalities. A representative of the province attends the discussions as an observer. The Central Manpower Service Board (Centraal Bestuur Arbeidsvoorziening – CBA) merely defines the main lines of manpower service policy. The Central Board includes representatives of central organizations of employers and employees and representatives of the Ministries of Social Affairs and Employment, Economic Affairs and Education and Science. The Union of Netherlands Municipalities attends the deliberations as an observer. The new structure of the employment promotion organization is thus now in place. This new structure features not only the sharing of responsibility by government, employers and employees but also a high level of decentralization. The most important instruments used to promote employment include a placement service (an area in which the CBA and RBAs do not have a monopoly), training, vocational guidance and the provision of labour.

Atheneum (modern grammar school): Part of pre-university education (Voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs), six-year preparation for university education.

Autochtonen (indigenous population): Used here as in the CBS statistical survey of the working population: persons born in the Netherlands not forming part of one of the categories referred to under 'Allochtonen'.

AVO (general secondary education): Comprises MAVO, HAVO and VWO (see Annex 1 for abbreviations).

Basiseducatie (voor volwassenen) (adult basic education): Part of adult education. Includes, in particular, part-time courses in language and social skills and vocational guidance courses. The courses offered are intended to enable adults to function better in society.

Basisonderwijs (primary education): Education for 4 to 12-year-olds.

Basisvorming (basic education): Integrated secondary education for 12 to 15-year-olds. It will be launched in 1993, replacing the separate LBO, MAVO and VWO schools. Pupils will be able to receive basic education at various levels.

Beroepsbevolking (labour force): Employed plus unemployed people aged 15-64.

• Employed people:	1. People employed by others 2. Self-employed people and family members assisting them
• Unemployed people	People without a job in receipt of unemployment benefit and people actively seeking employment.

Beroepsonderwijs (vocational education): Education geared to given occupations. There are three levels: junior secondary, senior secondary and higher vocational education (LBO, MBO, HBO).

Beroepsoriëntatie (vocational guidance): Confined to familiarizing the individual with an accurately defined occupational area and thus to a number of closely related occupations.

CBA: See Arbeidsvoorziening.

CBO (vocational education in course form): CBO comprises the apprenticeship system, part-time senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and special training, a category of such various types of training as courses outside the apprenticeship system, MBO follow-up courses, courses run by Vocational Training Centres and Centres for Occupational Orientation and Training and courses run by firms and private training bodies.

Eindterm (attainment target): A description in general behavioural terms of the knowledge, understanding, attitude and skills a pupil on a given training course must have to qualify for a certificate.

Gymnasium (classical grammar school): Part of pre-university education, six-year preparation for university education. The only type of school in which classical languages are taught.

HBO (higher vocational education): Four-year course for 17/18 to 21/22-year-olds. HBO follows on from HAVO, VWO and MBO.

In-service onderwijs (in-service education): Off-the-job training for people in employment; in the Netherlands this term is reserved for certain training courses in nursing and similar occupations.

LBO (Lager beroepsonderwijs) (junior secondary vocational education): Four-year training for 12 to 16-year-olds, the first two years being devoted to general education, the last two to pre-vocational education.

Leerlingwezen (apprenticeship system): Vocational training in which the apprentice spends one or two days of the week at school for off-the-job education and the other days undergoing practical training (usually in a firm). There are three levels in the apprenticeship system: primary (trainee worker level), secondary (skilled worker level) and tertiary (specialized training or training for self-employed workers). The apprenticeship system is open to young people and adults, whether employed or unemployed.

Lyceum: Educational establishment providing both modern and classical grammar school education.

MAVO (junior general secondary education): Four-year course for 12 to 16-year-olds, primarily intended as preparation for senior secondary vocational education (MBO) and the apprenticeship system.

MBO (senior secondary vocational education): Two, three or four-year courses for 16 to 20-year-olds, training to middle-management level (four-year course) or skilled technical level (two and three-year courses). MBO follows on from the LBO or MAVO (or similar) level.

PBVE (elementary vocationally oriented education for adults): Coordinating scheme whose primary aim is to make use of existing educational and training facilities to provide training particularly for job-seekers, women returners and non-indigenous people.

RBA (Regional Manpower Service Board): See Arbeidsvoorziening.

Speciaal onderwijs (special education): Education for pupils with learning difficulties and maladjusted pupils who therefore need more support than ordinary primary education can offer.

VAVO (adult general secondary education): Day and evening classes for adults in which they can obtain (subject) MAVO, HAVO and VWO certificates. Also known as 'second-chance education'.

Verzuiling (sectarianism): The phenomenon of the division of Dutch society into quite distinct politico-religious interest groups; this division is apparent in all aspects of society (including politics, education and social life).

Voortgezet onderwijs (secondary education): All education between primary and university education, with the exception of the apprenticeship scheme and the Open University.

Vormingswerk (part-time non-formal education for young adults): Organized activities to promote the process whereby people develop their own identity and conscious self-orientation and are capable of independently tapping their own potential in contacts with others.

VWO (pre-university education): Consists of three types – atheneum, gymnasium and lyceum – and lasts six years. It is intended for 12 to 18-year-olds and prepares them for university education or higher vocational education (HBO).

Wetenschappelijk onderwijs (University Education): A form of higher education, primarily in the universities.

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Vocational education and training in the Netherlands

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